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NATIONAL

AND

PARLIAMENTARY NOTICES, *PROSPECTIVE and RETROSPECTIVE.*

CIVIL LIST.

REPORT FROM THE SELECT COMMITTEE
UPON THE CIVIL LIST; &c.

[Ordered, by the House of Commons, to be
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AMONG a free people the splendour of office differs from the personal splendour of the individual who occupies it. In private, he is a man, like other men, liable to the same infirmities, the same necessities, and the same errors; but, in office he represents the combined and concentrated qualities of his constituents; and his situation, being intended for public advantage, commands public respect. A magistrate, executing the duties of magistracy, is very properly deemed *worl'pul*; i. e. his office is worthy of deference. A divine is addressed as *reverend*; because the idea of reverence is attached to his service. The station of a judge is dignified; and equally, as a *bi-hop*, he is addressed as "my lord." Now it is undeniable, that, philosophically speaking, a bishop without clerical supporters, or a judge without an equipage, might be the very abstract of piety or of uprightness, personally; nevertheless few are the men who would not feel,—or infer, in the absence of official attendants, a slight cast on the office itself. There are, moreover, a thousand minor duties to be performed, which must be done by deputy. No man can divide his attention, or direct his actions to many places at the same moment: no man can act and meditate, contemporaneously; with full

vigour of mind and body. To discharge all his duties, he must, therefore, delegate his powers: he must give directions, and those directions must be executed by an inferior, a deputed instrument. The more this subject is considered the more impressive will be the conviction that this is not the result of pride, or of caprice, of personal, or of national vanity; but is demanded by the good of the country; for to employ a dignitary in a menial occupation, or to distract the powers of a mind competent to decide on intricate and important national questions, by multifarious and discordant exertions, extended at random, is to injure society in one of its most consequential departments. And not only so, but minds of inferior qualifications would do the drudgery better: they would think less, and act more.

"Order is heaven's first law;" in the conduct of private families, it is necessary that one head should guide many hands. In the direction of talents, in the application of labour, in all combinations of exertion for the purpose of producing one whole, it is necessary that a general impulse should be given, not by the many to one, but by one to the many: as in some well-constructed machine a single great wheel imparts motion to a combination of lesser wheels infinitely diversified.

If these propositions are undeniable in the instances of private families, of commercial institutions, of distinct officers highly exalted, what must be said of that complex, and every thing combining officer, the King of England, the head of all departments of the state? For instance, his majesty is head of the law; but he cannot discharge the legal duties of that office in person. By fiction, indeed, he presides on the bench among his judges; but, in fact, he is

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there only by them, his deputies: by equal fiction, he presides at the deliberations of Parliament, the great council of the land, from which he solicits advice; but in fact, he meets his advisers solely on important occasions; and during the body of their debates he is present only by the insignia of the royal arms, and by the propositions and explanations of his ministers.—

He is commander-in-chief of his army; but he cannot command his army when on foreign service, and in many distant places. He is lord high admiral of the navy; but only Omnipotence can be present with the British fleets acting in every latitude on the globe.—

Neither can he visit foreign courts, and maintain that good understanding with them, which the public welfare requires. He must act by residents bearing his commission: he must depute representatives; and these representatives ought to be well qualified men; men of vigorous minds accustomed to business, of competent information and courtly manners, of indefatigable diligence, of zeal, promptitude, firmness, sagacity, and a strong sense of honour—that of their king, that of their nation, and that of their character.

It is not to be supposed, that in the present state of society, men endowed with accomplishments requisite for such exalted stations, as judges, speakers of the houses of parliament, ambassadors at foreign courts, &c. will relinquish the enjoyments of domestic life, the emoluments of their respective professions, their freedom of mind, and engagements, their command of their own time, and of their leisure, often still more valuable to studious men, to involve themselves in public business, at their own cost. Their probable, as well as actual, advantages must be in some shape compensated to them: and their employer, as he absorbs their whole time and talents, must, by his liberality repair their losses, and remunerate their services. Whether it would be better that the remuneration were paid at once from the public treasury to these public officers, or by the medium of his majesty, as their superior, is of no consequence, at present: every master should pay his own servants; all the world knows that with the power of appointing, translating, and removing,

is too strongly connected that of paying, to admit of its being separated from the character of master, whether in the case of individuals or of the crown.

All these considerations, with many others, unite in our contemplation of the crown of England, as a national officer, necessarily acting by deputy, on all occasions *extra* the kingdom, and, at home, on all occasions *extra* the palace. With regard to his personal accommodations, in respect, also, to attendants, to residence, to general respectability of appearance, and on proper occasions to magnificence and state, no man who sincerely loves his country, would wish to see the King of England, in his public capacity, the level of any one description of his subjects. Who may be more useful, more honourable, or more happy, than a country squire?—But the occupier of the throne were ill designated as the mere *fac simile* of the best conditioned rustic. Nor is the king a gentleman, merely: he is the first of gentlemen; neither is he to be compared with a private nobleman: he is the head of the nobles. The most that any noble can pretend to is the hereditary representation of a county; but the king represents hereditarily all the counties united into a kingdom: and now he represents the united power and dignity of three kingdoms consolidated into one.

The king is the fountain of honour: he confers distinctions and dignities; but to charge the subjects of his favour with the expences attending their creation, were a parsimony to be scouted even by those who in the humblest of fraternities lay level lot on all who by partaking of the cheer render themselves liable to club for the reckoning. And this may be appealed to as *one* proof of the propriety of bringing the expenses of the civil list from time to time before parliament: and we may take the liberty of adding—of facilitating an acquaintance with the essential contents of it to the nation at large. The public does not know, that *one* penny of the expenses attending an installation of knights falls on the royal purse. The newspapers detail a pompous account of the ceremony; it is perused, commented on, admired and criticised; but should some intelligent foreigner desirous of information enquire who paid the cost? how many in a thou-

and of our countrymen could answer his question, so as to meet his purposes?

None can deny that while so many honours centre in his person, the king himself and his family are intitled to an ample and honourable provision. Parsimony towards a sovereign is the worst of bad policy. His anxieties may be great for the nation, for its prosperity, and for the direction given to its state affairs by his instrumentality; but he should not be anxious for daily bread. In discharging the fair duties of his station, he should be free from all doubt on a fair support from his people. The nation is concerned that none among his subjects should vie with its king. His is the precedence: be it so in all things. Not only is his service honourable; but it should be known to be so; it should be distinguished. His family is the first family in the state: let all the enjoyment due to that exalted rank be assigned to those who occupy it. Let them have the means of rewarding services, of bestowing favours, of diffusing beneficence, of relieving distress, of protecting the fatherless, and of causing the widow's heart to leap for joy. Let them be able by their affluence to promote the elegancies of life, to patronize the arts, to stimulate the skill of our manufacturers, to reward emulation, and thereby to produce instances of what can be done,—the benefit of these kindnesses terminates in the nation. Let them foster British taste, and habituate their friends of the nobility to that principle; let them reward merit in every shape: something too is due to friendship, to long acquaintance, to the sympathies of our nature; not from a liberal attention to these and such like enjoyments, will a single imputation of extravagance be cherished in the mind of a genuine Briton.

Deep politicians, it is true, have charged the civil list with the crime of corrupting our manners; they have supposed they saw in it—bribery in all its forms,—the subversion of the constitution, by undue preponderance, &c. &c. &c. The refutation of such visionaries, though not due by justice, may nevertheless be advantageous to the community; and that is best done by legislative examination

of the expences attending this branch of national expenditure.

Calumny always attends greatness: and political greatness, constantly surrounded by envy, is a fixed mark for opprobrium and misrepresentation. The reports submitted to Parliament on the subject of the civil list, should also be submitted to the nation; at least as to their essence.

We should willingly acknowledge the superior talents of whoever can find in the expenditure of the royal income those vast surpluses, on which some have so nobly and notably descended. It appears to us, that the regular demands on this fund in the form of current and ordinary expences suffer no department to accumulate a superfluity. The nation cannot desire to deprive the royal table of roast beef; and if any irregular *beef-eaters* have unfairly crept into the household, as the committee seem to suspect, let them be fairly ousted, at the demand of justice and honour. No considerate mind will consent to diminish the royal charities;—the list is kept private from motives of the same benevolence as directs the distribution of it: this is a proper and seemly delicacy; for, the king is here too, in a sense, almoner for the nation. In short, the privy purse, has claims on it too many to be satisfied, though too strong to be denied. Would to God his Majesty were able to direct its distribution!

What reforms the committee have suggested will not escape our readers' notice. A few others might perhaps be effected without injury to the honour of the nation. It is true, that the amount is no great matter,—yet why the king of England is bound to contribute to the expences attending the marriage of the eldest son of the bashaw of Tripoli (in the year 1803, the present amounted to £143 17s) we do not adequately comprehend; as we have never heard that the bashaw of Tripoli thinks himself bound to contribute a single *sou* to the marriage of the king of England's eldest son. But, it seems, as if the Barbary powers were in favour at court: the dey of Algiers was gratified in the same year with the sum of £1,300 6s. and the emperor of Morocco with £1,085 5s. to which must be added a *second* "customary present on

the appointment of a consul general to the emperor of Morocco £1,085 3s. 6d." in the same year. Again, for 1811 we find the emperor of Morocco set down for £1,058 2s. in which year we have also "the viceroy of Egypt,"—(who is he?)—£533 12s. 6d. : and strangely enough consorted in one article, "the minister of the Ottoman Porte, and the emperor of Austria (1810) £9,112." If these are *regular* and *periodical* payments not to be withheld when the appointed time arrives, the Barbary powers are justified in their boasts of receiving tribute from Britain:—whether this be honourable to Britain, is another question:—but if they be free donations, on extraordinary occasions only, and to be remitted or withheld at pleasure, the case is changed. Nothing can be said to inculpate presents "to the Persian envoy on his return home: £534 5s."—"To the king of Persia: £10,240 5s."—"To the King and queen (?) of Persia."—"To the emperor of Abyssinia: £2,014 2s. 6d." These no doubt were sent on occasion of national compliment, and introduction or continuoation of intercurrence between the sovereigns.

After so much attention demonstrating no languid desire to stand well with the Mahomedan government, we may be allowed to express our regret at the contemptible sum allowed to the *christian* University of Oxford for a preacher £ s. d. cher 10 0 0
Professor of divinity 13 6 8

And in like manner to the *christian* University of Cambridge

"on a perpetuity 10 0 0
For a preacher 10 0 0
Professor of divinity 13 6 8

What divinity can be taught to the rising generation of students, at Oxford or Cambridge for a pitiful *ten pounds* per annum? Why should not this duty be rendered efficient, and the crown stand forward to support the purity of our holy religion, by inducing capable and learned men to state the necessary arguments on this great subject with assiduity and accuracy? Will *ten pounds* per ann. buy them half, or a quarter of the books necessary for their perusal? If the crown would deeply consider the invaluable opportunity lost by such parsimony of teach-

ing *real* divinity; the sneers and jokes to which it gives occasion in other quarters, the principles, or want of principles, carried by the young men who are destined to be *teachers* among the people; with the general spread of learning throughout the nation at this time, and other notorious circumstances, surely it would enlarge this stipend, and compliment Divinity with a royal gift at least equal to "History £400," and "Botany £200." It is no matter what other professorships of divinity may be established: from the head of the church, this object ought to receive a more honourable, distinguished, and *decisive* appointment.

We observe with pleasure, a donation

"Towards the expense of building a free church at Birmingham, £1,060 16s. 6d."

"Major James Rennie, in aid of his geographic work, £2,112 1s. 6d."

"Expences attending Merino sheep, £4,810 16s. 10d."

"Sir Joseph Banks, for expenses of Tapia, an Otaheitan, £73 15s. 7d. Also Cambridge lecturers in 1805, £300,—in 1806, £600,—in 1811, £700."

We say nothing against the respect shewn to suffering greatness in the article "expence of the Duke de Montpensier's funeral, and a tablet to his memory £703 18s. 9d." or to the payment of the salary due to the Rev. Mr. Hayter for his labours in attempting to unfold the Herculaneum MSS. From whom should such liberality be expected, if not from kings? and from what king sooner than from the king of England? Those weak minds who would restrict the British crown to a bare pittance of *precisely enough*, would leave no possibility of assistance in important undertakings too expensive for private purses: nor for objects truly national, though not strictly within the pale of legislative prescription. A nobleman may be allowed to import Merino sheep: why may not our national nobleman? A gentleman may assist costly labours with his purse: why may not the first of our gentlemen? why must the king acting on the part of his crown, i. e. of the nation, be excluded from liberalities, honourable liberalities which are free to every other person throughout his dominions?

The Select Committee appointed to consider of the Charge upon the Civil List Revenue; and to report the same, have, pursuant to the Order of the House, considered the matter referred to them, and agreed to the following Report.

The accounts referred to the Committee, contain a statement of the charge upon His Majesty's civil list for the period of seven years, from the 5th of July, 1804 (being the day on which the additional annuity of £60,000 become payable under the act passed in that year): and the 5th of July, 1811, being the termination of the year preceding the present session; according to the mode in which the accounts of the civil list are now made up.

On a comparison of this charge with the estimate laid before the house, by his Majesty's command, on the 7th of July, 1804, it appears to have exceeded the estimate in the whole period of seven years, by the sum of £868,000, being upon an average, £124,000 in each year. And it is remarkable, that an excess, to a very considerable extent, appears even in those years of the period which immediately followed the formation of the estimate.

The services defrayed out of the revenues of the civil list are of many different kinds, affected by a great variety of considerations, some of them connected with the political state of the country, and others dependent only on the discretion of the crown and its ministers.

The reports of the Committees of 1802, 1803, and 1804, contain a detailed history of the progress of the civil list expenses, for a period of eighteen years, from 1786 to 1801, and comparing the average of the first three years with the average of the last three years of that period, there appears to have been an increase upon the expenditure of the civil list, of £238,000, *viz.* from £903,000 to £1,141,000. The annual excess was, for the most part, in the opinion of the Committees, obviously to be accounted "for by the advance of price which had taken place on all articles in which the establishment of the household is concerned; and, in the other branches of a more public nature, by necessary additions to various articles of charge;" and they were also of opinion, that the revenue applicable to the charge of the civil list expenditure, was become inadequate to the various services which, in the estimate of 1786, it was calculated to meet; they accordingly recommended "that a new estimate, more adapted to present circumstances, should be prepared and laid before parliament."

I. The first class of payments, according to the act 22 Geo. III. cap. 82, sec. 31, con-

sists of "the pensions and allowances of the ROYAL FAMILY." The estimate was £222,500, but there has been a small saving upon the charge in the latter years, in consequence of the deaths of their royal highnesses the Duchess of Cumberland, and the Princess Amelia.

II. The second class, namely, "the salaries of the lord high chancellor of Great Britain, lord keeper or lords commissioners of the great seal, the speaker of the house of commons, and judges of the courts of king's bench and common pleas, and barons of the exchequer, the chief justice of Chester, and the justices of the courts of great session in the principality of Wales," consists of fixed salaries, correctly stated in the estimate at £32,955 per annum, and the amount is therefore only affected by occasional vacancies, which has produced a saving of small amount.

III. The third class consists of "the salaries of the ministers to foreign courts, being resident at such courts."

The charge of the three years, 1801, 1802, and 1803, was upon an average, £88,000. But it is obvious that neither the actual establishment, nor the previous expense during years of war, can be adopted as a basis of comparison, inasmuch as our relations with foreign courts are liable to perpetual fluctuations.

Our intercourse with most foreign courts has been so much interrupted during the last seven years, as to have produced a reduction of expense in the whole period, of more than £200,000.

It appears that in all cases of one minister succeeding another, the predecessor continues to receive the salary annexed to the appointment, for some time after that of the successor has commenced; so that frequent changes tend to an increase of charge. This remark applies particularly to the court of Petersburg, in consequence, probably, of the distance of that court, and the occasional difficulty of communication.

The same causes, together with that of occasional appointments of acting ministers, appear to have occasioned a variation in the charges at Constantinople, Vieana, Lisbon, and in America.

However useful it may be on many occasions to the public service, that the stay of the former minister should be prolonged for some time after the arrival of his successor, yet as this additional charge admits of encroachment, it is the duty of the secretary of state, and lords commissioners of the treasury, to take care that it is kept within due bounds.

A considerable excess appears to have occurred at the court of Naples, now removed to the island of Sicily. A retrospective addition was made in 1810, to the allowance of

the envoy extraordinary, in order, as it appears, to put that appointment upon a similar establishment with that of the ministers in Spain and Portugal; and during the period in which the mission was distinct from the appointment of commander of British forces in the island, the diplomatic character and allowances of an envoy appear to have been also given to that officer.

There appears to have been during the whole period some consulate appointments which were not included in the estimate; and the removal of the court from Lisbon to the Brazil has caused the establishment of a mission in the latter country, the necessity of which could not possibly be foreseen. In the last two years also, there appears to have been an embassy in Persia: and these unforeseen charges are to be set against the saving produced by the cessation of our intercourse with other courts.

Saving in seven years 211,893

Vacancies and cessation of inter-
course, account for a saving of.... 379,035

excess in this point of view 167,142
of this excess the amount of 86,404
was occasioned by the employment of Ministers, and Consuls, at courts and places not mentioned in the estimate of 1804; and the remainder 80,737
is to be accounted for, by the circumstances already observed.

IV. Fourth class, "the approved bills of all Tradesmen, Artificers, and Labourers, for any articles supplied or work done for His Majesty's service." Excess more than £600,000 in seven years.

This class is divided into the four departments of the Royal household, viz. "The Lord Chamberlain's department, the Lord Steward's, the department of the Master of the Horse, and that of Master of the Robes.

1. The estimate for the Lord Chamberlain's department was fixed in 1804, at £65,000, which would amount to £455,000 or the seven years.

There has been an excess of more than £400,000, about £57,000 annually.

On an average of the three years preceding 1804 the annual expense of this department was £83,000 which exceeded by £18,000 the amount at which the estimate was fixed; so that if the estimate had been formed upon the principle of previous expenditure, the excess in the seven years would have been £267,000, being less by above £180,000 than that which now appears on the face of the accounts; and the annual excess would have been £38,000, instead of £57,000.

A great proportion of the increased charge appears to have arisen in the office of works; and of the excess of £140,000, no less than £110,000, arose in that department. Were

this comparison extended to the respective periods of seven years, the proportion would appear to be £59,000, under the head of "Works;" to £108,000, in the other branches.

Commissioners were appointed in 1805, to "examine into the expenditure and conduct of business in the Office of Works."

Considering that among these powers is that of examining all persons upon oath, that the proceedings of this board are not interupted by any prorogation of Parliament, and that its former labours have been marked with a degree of zeal and ability which has frequently attracted the notice of this house; having also ascertained that the board is now directing its attention to this particular object of its enquiry, which their experience in similar investigations will doubtless enable them to pursue with great advantage, the committee have conceived themselves justified in refraining from entering into any examination of it.

The Wardrobe, and the Jewel office.

The estimate has been exceeded £108,000, or more than £15,000, annually. Of this a considerable proportion arose in the first year.

To this branch of the department belong the following services:

The furnishing and fitting up all the royal palaces, being the residences of their Majesties, or of any of the branches of the royal family.

The same services with respect to the two houses of parliament, the residence of the speaker of the House of Commons, the offices of the Treasury, and of the Secretaries of State.

The providing plate, chapel-furniture, &c. for His Majesty's ministers at foreign courts, and governors of Foreign settlements;—of plate for certain great officers of state;—of Robes and insignia for the Knights of the Garter and Bath; and of defraying the expense of royal funerals; together with various other miscellaneous charges.

It is obvious that several, if not all of the services here enumerated, are variable in their amount; and the whole charge is not so great but that a considerable increase of expense in any one particular, or the coincidence of unusual expenditure for more than one service, affects sensibly the total amount. It will accordingly be found, that not only in the instance immediately under consideration, but in several of the years of the former period, the charge of one year, as compared with the preceding, has not less than 10 or £13,000.

The peculiar causes of increase in 1804-5, appear to have been, the removal of the royal residence from the Lodges at Windsor to the ancient castle; and the installation of the Knights of the Garter; which, together, ap-

pear to have carried up the expenses at Windsor to an amount greater by 14 or £16,000, than its usual rate.

The expenses in the next three years fell considerably; so that adding to these moderate years the extraordinary expense of that which preceded, the annual excess would be £10,000, a rate of increase, at which in the former period also, the expenditure of this department had been proceeding.

Of the period under consideration three years remain, of which one (ending 5th July 1809) was that in which the expense appears the highest in the whole account. This excess is to be attributed to the expenses incurred in refitting the apartments of some of their Royal Highnesses the younger princes in St. James's Palace, and of Her Royal Highness the Princess of Wales at Kensington; to extraordinary expenses attending a new arrangement in the public offices at Whitehall, and to an unusual charge for the allowances above-mentioned to foreign ministers; also the fitting up Dorset House for the office of Secretary of state.

The expenses of this department are in general increased by charges of a public nature, which do not appertain to the King's household; but rather to the administration of his civil Government, and even to the accommodation of the two Houses of Parliament; so that of £393,000, the total charge of this branch of the Lord Chamberlain's department, no less than £117,000, appear to have belonged to services of this nature.

A very great proportion of this increase is unquestionably to be accounted for, in this, as in the former instance, by the gradual advance of prices.

Much of the expense of the Lord Chamberlain's department appears to be incurred by articles furnished at the specific requisition of individuals inhabiting the Royal palaces; and although it appears that these articles are not furnished without certain checks, established within the household, in order to prevent unnecessary issues; yet the very great increase that has in fact taken place, induces the Committee to recommend most earnestly, that not only those who have immediate superintendence of this branch of the civil list expenditure should keep a strict watch over it; but that the commissioners of the Treasury should regularly and frequently inspect the state and progress of this varying charge, with a view to limiting its amount.

2.—The estimate for the Lord Steward's department was settled in 1804, at £75,000, which, for the whole seven years, would amount to £525,000. The actual charge has been £737,000, exceeding the estimate by £212,000, upon the whole period, or by £30,000, annually.

The average expense of the Lord Steward's department in 1801, 1802, and 1803, was £64,000, and it is to be observed further with respect to the estimate of 1804, that in no one of the nine years preceding that year, was the expenditure so low as £75,000.

Upon this comparison then the annual exceeding appears to be £21,000, instead of £30,000.

A sudden excess in this department in the early part of the period, appears to be caused by the removal of their majesties to Windsor Castle, the Installation, and the residence of the royal family at Weymouth, and allowances in kind furnished to certain of the younger branches of the royal family, which ceased in 1800, when the parliamentary allowances to their royal highnesses the dukes of Clarence, Kent, Sussex, and Cambridge, were augmented by one-half.

The continual increase of expense in this department, is without doubt to be referred, in a very great degree, to the general advance of prices in all the articles of consumption.

From the nature of the expenditure of this department, it requires the utmost vigilance, and a very minute attention, in order to preserve an effectual control over it, so as to prevent that profusion and waste which is incidental to the consumption of every considerable household.

On that part of the expenditure which appertains immediately to the personal accommodation of their majesties, and which forms but a small part of the whole, the committee do not conceive themselves called upon to offer any observations: they proceed, therefore, to offer such suggestions as occur to them on the general expenditure of the household.

Of these, some are provided upon a regular establishment or scale of allowance, fixed at least thirty years ago, and officially called *Livery*; others are furnished by *Order*, that is, at the requisitions of the individuals desiring to be supplied, and having his majesty's authority to make their requisitions to the Board of Green Cloth. Both these modes appear to the committee liable to objection. The first, being established according to a fixed rate, is not adapted to the actual consumption of the parties to whom the distribution is made; the surplus therefore becomes the perquisite of the individual to whom it is supplied, and in that view, constitutes an expensive and inconvenient mode of reward.

The second applies to a variety of persons of different ranks; and at Windsor the whole expenditure is conducted in this mode; which appears in general to be subject to the same objections as the former, with the additional inconvenience of not being, like the former, limited by any fixed rule as to its extent.

They therefore suggest whether it might not be proper to limit the supply of articles by requisition, to the royal personages themselves; and (abolishing the system of *Livery*, as it now exists with respect to others) to substitute a principle of actual and *bona fide* consumption confined within limits, which should on no occasion be exceeded.

The amount of these allowances should be frequently revised, and the general expenditure in the article to which they apply, should be brought under the consideration of the Commissioners of the Treasury at the end of each quarter, who should be furnished with accounts sufficient to enable them to ascertain the nature and causes of any excess that may arise. They are sensible that the establishment of an effectual system for maintaining economy in the royal household must, in the first instance, be the result of an enquiry carried on within the household itself; but they trust that the suggestions which they have made may tend to facilitate any arrangements which may be the result of that enquiry, and may also be the means of controlling the general expenditure.

Such of their royal highnesses as are resident in royal palaces, still continue to increase occasionally the expenditure of the Lord Chamberlain's department, including the Office of Works.

The committee are sensible of the delicacy of interfering with the munificence of the crown towards the younger branches of the royal family, by any specific recommendation; but as the parliamentary annuities enjoyed by their royal highnesses were considerably increased a few years ago, they think they may be considered as adequate to support the high stations which they fill. The committee therefore trust, that the principle which appears to have been acted upon before in the Lord Steward's department, may be adopted, at least in a great degree, in that of the Lord Chamberlain's; and that the charges upon the Civil List for furnishing, or altering the apartments which their royal highnesses may occupy in any of the royal palaces, may either be entirely discontinued, or be permitted to occur only on very particular occasions.

3.—*Master of the Horse.* The estimate appears to have been taken at a rate rather higher than the expense previous to 1804; the average expense has fallen short of the estimate so as to produce a saving of £4,000.

3.—*Master of the Robes.* The charge in the early years rather exceeded the estimate; but, owing to circumstances which must be obvious to the house, it has in the last year been reduced, so as to leave a trifling saving.

V.—The fifth class is entitled "The Menial Servants of His Majesty's Household."

The charge has been greater than the estimate in the seven years, by £25,000. It appears to have arisen chiefly from allowances given as compensation to various servants of the household, when the tables provided for them were discontinued.

The committee trust, that in advertising to the salaries of the menial servants of his majesty's household, they may be permitted to notice a custom which has prevailed, of demanding *periodical gratuities*, on the part of certain inferior servants belonging to the household, from persons attending the court. It is understood the ground of these applications is the smallness of the salaries or wages enjoyed by these servants; and the committee submit whether it would not be expedient to take away the excuse made for the demand, by providing adequate salaries for all the servants of the royal household.

VI.—The sixth class is "The Pension List." Excess £124,000 in seven years.

But in order to form a clear understanding of this class, it is necessary to divide it into its three branches:

1. The first division consists of the pensions, which under the 17th section of the act of 1782, are limited to £95,000 per annum in the whole, and of which no one can exceed £1,200.

The estimate of this branch was taken in 1804, at an amount falling short of this legal limitation, and was probably formed upon the existing charge. In fact, the pensions actually paid have never equalled the estimate, so that there has been a saving thereupon of more than £40,000; and a diminution, as compared with the legislative allowance, of £60,000. But the committee have to observe, that this saving does not entirely arise from a forbearance on the part of the crown to grant pensions to the permitted amount, inasmuch as this list includes the contingent and floating pensions, the nonpayment of which occasions a diminution of the charge upon the Civil List, though it does not give any power of granting new pensions.

2. Pensions granted to persons who have served his majesty at foreign courts, and which were not subjected to the restrictions of the above-mentioned section of the act of 1782.

Upon this head there has been a very great exceeding, the estimate having been of late years more than doubled by the charge.

It must be obvious that the same circumstances in our political relations which have occasioned the diminution in the charge of ministers resident at foreign courts, already noticed under the third class, must have caused an increase of the pensions to foreign ministers not actually in employ.

3. Sundry small allowances, by way of annual bounty and compensations paid within the four departments of the household. These have uniformly fallen short of the estimate of 1804, and appear to be rather decreasing.

VII.—The seventh class contains “The Salaries of all other places payable out of the Civil List Revenues.”

The estimate being formed upon the actual rate of those salaries, was correctly taken at about £55,000 or £387,000 in seven years. There has been a small diminution of charge.

VIII.—The eighth class consists of “The Salaries and Pensions of the High Treasurer or Commissioners of the Treasury, and Chancellor of the Exchequer.” This class admits of no increase, nor any diminution, except in the case of occasional vacancies.

In the seven years, there has been a saving of £3,500; but this has been principally occasioned by the circumstance of the late Chancellor of the Exchequer, Mr. Perceval, declining to receive the salary attached to that office from the period at which he became First Commissioner of the Treasury.

“Occasional Payments.” The estimate has been exceeded by £330,000 in the seven years; annual average, £47,000.

After making allowance for the charges, amounting in the years 1801, 1802, and 1803, to £246,000 which were taken from the Civil List by the arrangement of 1804, the average of occasional payment for the three years preceding 1804, was £217,000—exceeding the estimate adopted, by £77,000. The result therefore is that instead of an excess of £330,000 upon the head of “Occasional Payments,” there appears by this comparison to have been a diminution of expenditure, of more than £200,000 in favour of this period.

1st. *Home Secret Service*.—Is limited by act of 1782, to £10,000 and has not varied.

2d. *Special Service and Royal Bounty*.—The estimate is £12,000 or £84,000 for seven years; the actual charge has been nearly double that sum, being at the rate of more than £23,000 annually.

It may be thus stated for the seven years:

1st. Royal bounty.....	£58,900
2nd. Allowances to various officers of the houses of parliament, and others, for business performed for the Treasury, for returns of average prices of corn, &c. &c. 45,000	
3d. Allowances to the magistrates of Middlesex and Westminster... 8,800	
4th. Taxes and fees	13,500

5th. Various other charges, mostly of a public nature, and particularized in an Analysis 39,600

The second, third, and fourth of these charges ought not, as the committee conceive, to be stated as special service.

Of the miscellaneous charges included in the 5th head, many are annual payments, and others not of the nature of special service.

Under the head of “Royal Bounty,” are included several advances made by his Majesty’s command to the Duke of Gloucester’s family, at the period of the provision made for that branch of the royal family, upon the decease of the late duke, his Majesty’s brother.

An advance was also made to the Duchess of Brunswick out of the revenue of the Civil List, which was mentioned in his Majesty’s most gracious message to this house of 10th May 1808, and an advance to her Majesty of £10,250 which took place in 1810.

3d. *Extraordinary Disbursements of Foreign Ministers*.—This service was estimated in 1804, at £10,000 or £70,000 in the seven years. The actual charge has been more than £383,000 or £54,000 annually.

It must be obvious that this charge is not reducible to an estimate that can approach to accuracy.

Several sums, amounting to £45,000 appear to have been issued to various ministers, on account of losses sustained by their being under the necessity of suddenly quitting the courts at which they were resident; and there are indeed many other issues which appear to have been partly composed of similar compensations, the amount of which, however, is not in these instances distinguished from the expenses in general.

The sum of £99,000 appears to have been expended on “Special Missions,” including the sum of £12,997, to Mr. Frere, and £14,134 to the Marquis Wellesley, for the expenses of their Special Missions to Spain.

Twenty-five thousand pounds appears to have been expended on the British palace at Constantinople, and £11,000 applied to the establishment of the Persian ambassador in this country.

One less considerable article your committee think it right to notice, because it does not appear to them properly to belong to this particular head of charge, namely, £1,060 paid to the Duke of Manchester, for “Expenses of his outfit as Governor of Jamaica.”

4th. *Presents to Foreign Ministers*.—These were estimated at £0,000 or £70,000 in the whole period. The actual charge has been £99,000 or £14,000 annually.

The former average was really £14,000; this average is scarcely exceeded at present.

5th. *Equipage to Foreign Ministers.*—This charge, estimated at £4,000 or £28,000 for seven years, has actually amounted to £4,700 annually, or nearly £33,000 in the whole. This amount falls short by more than £1,200 of the average of three years.

6th and 7th. *Contingent Expenses of the Treasury; also, Deficiency of Fees in the Treasury.*—Upon the first head, estimated at £1,500 or £10,500 at seven years, there has been an exceeding of £9,000. This increase appears to have been progressive through the whole period, and to have exceeded the estimate in the last year by more than £2,700.

The deficiency of fees consists of the sum by which the salaries of the secretaries and clerks of the Treasury, exceed the amount of the fees received on public instruments passing through that office. It was observed in an Account presented to the House, July 9, 1804, that " It did not follow that an increase of business should occasion a proportionate increase of fees, as the correspondence of the office makes so material a part of that increase, for which no fees are charged." All public business having manifestly continued to increase, there has been necessarily an exceeding upon this charge.

8th. *Contingencies in the offices of the three Secretaries of State.*—On this charge, estimated at £19,600 or £137,000 in the seven years, there has been a saving of £0,000.

9th. *Messengers in the Offices of the three Secretaries of State.*—Taken at £20,000 annually, upon which there has also been a saving of £9,500 for seven years.

10th. *Deficiency of Fees in the Offices of the three Secretaries of State.*—Here there has been a saving of more than £100,000; the actual charge having been £56,000 in the period of seven years, whereas the amount of the annual estimate of £23,000 would have been in that period, £161,000.

The remainder of the small and miscellaneous charges forming part of the occasional payments, were estimated to amount collectively to £14,000 or £102,000 for the period of seven years; the actual charge, £95,000 has fallen short of that estimate by £6,000.

.....

The result of these comparisons is, that the excess of the expenditure of the seven years, ending the 5th July 1811, as compared with the average to 5th January 1804, has been £502,000. The annual excess, upon an average of the seven years, has been £71,000. The average yearly charge of the three last years has exceeded the estimate by £64,000. The excess of the last year has been £52,000.

The principal excesses have arisen,

In the fourth class: in the bills of tradesmen in the office of Lord Chamberlain, (es-

pecially in the Office of Works) and in the office of Lord Seward.

In the sixth class: upon the pensions to foreign ministers.

Among the occasional payments, in the charges appearing under the head of " Special Service, and Royal Bounty;"—The extraordinary expenses of foreign ministers, and presents to ministers of foreign courts, and in the expenses of the Treasury.

The prominent causes of these excesses, are, severally,—the advance in the prices of all articles of furniture and consumption:—the enlarged establishment of different branches of the royal family:—the peculiar and fluctuating state of our foreign relations:—the increase of public business.

But your committee cannot too strongly urge the necessity of a strict attention on the part both of the officers of the royal household, and of the commissioners of the treasury, to the economy and control of their several departments. And above all, they are anxious to mark the advantage which, in their opinion, is to be derived, from a minute and frequent investigation of the state of the Civil List, on the part of the Board of Treasury. They conceive that the jealousy of that Board ought to be excited by any increase whatever, in any branch of this expenditure; and that for any additional expenditure taking place in any of the departments not under their immediate superintendance, they ought promptly to require explanations from the officer at the head of such department, so as to ascertain satisfactorily the causes of such exceeding.

By an act of the present session, it is enacted, that " whenever the amount of the deficiency of the Civil List Revenues shall exceed the sum of £124,000 (therein stated to be the deficiency on an average of years, since the passing of the act of 1804) by the sum of £10,000, the Lord High Treasurer, or Lords Commissioners for executing the office of Lord High Treasurer for the time being, shall cause an account of such deficiency to be laid before parliament, within one month after the same shall have arisen."

This provision appears to your committee to be most useful and important, as it furnishes an additional security against the occurrence of fresh excesses, inasmuch, as under this provision, the circumstance of supplying the deficiency from occasional funds will not have the effect which it has hitherto had, of preventing the necessity of acquainting the house with the excesses that may have occurred in the expenditure of the Civil List; and it must, as they conceive, necessarily impose upon the Commissioners of the Treasury, in the first instance, the obligation of a frequent inspection of the state of the Civil List,

Particulars of the allowances made to sundry of his Majesty's servants; public and domestic.

PUBLIC OFFICERS.

The allowances customarily made to his Majesty's Ministers and Servants abroad, are gold and silver plate, a canopy of state, chapel furniture, portraits of their Majesties, &c. The charge of course varies in each year according to the number of persons entitled to demand such allowances.

To Knights of the Garter, Bath, &c. Robes and Insignia.

Plate to great Officers of State.

DOMESTIC ATTENDANTS.

From the Lord Steward's Department, their Majesties, and the Royal Household, whether in London, at Windsor, at Kew, or at Weymouth, or any other place of occasional residence, are supplied with every article of household provision, with wine, and with fuel.

The persons and apartments upon the *Livery* are as follows, viz.

Their Majesties and the Princesses,	
Maids of Honour, Council Chambers,	
Teachers, Physicians,	
Dressers, Chairmen,	
Housekeepers, Footmen,	
Pages, Porters,	
Guard Chamber, Wardrobe,	
Librarian, Clerks of Kitchen,	
Exempts, Wine Cellar,	
State Rooms, Spicery,	

And many other inferior servants; and the articles so supplied are fuel, lights, bread, beer, table linen. All other articles furnished to the same persons are by *Order*. At Windsor the whole supply is by order; but the orders, except in the case of visitors and other extraordinary demands, become nearly as regular as the liveries, with this difference, that the supplies by *Order* admit of a reduction owing to the occasional cessation of the demand. This is particularly the case in regard to *Wine*, which is supplied to the several tables upon a scale which is seldom exceeded, but upon which there is often a saving.

TABLES SUPPLIED.

The following is a list of the tables, so supplied with wine, at Windsor: His Majesty's table, The Pages, Her Majesty's table, The clerks of the Kitchen, The Equerries, The Physicians, The Dresser, Her Majesty's Council, Occasional Visitors.

There is a Livery of Wine, which is called The *Pitcher List*; this is an ancient allowance of wine to various Persons on Holiday, and Gala days.

Hy. Norton Willis,
Board of Green Cloth,
April 12, 1812.

The tables annexed to this Report state particulars of the expences of the royal establishments; with those incidents by which it has been affected:—such as, the fire in 1809, which consumed a considerable part of the palace of St. James's; for though no part of the *consumed* buildings has been rebuilt, yet the apartments of the royal dukes, and others *damaged* by that casualty have been refitted. The compensation to sufferers and allowance to firemen amounted to £1,492. The occasional journeys of the royal family add to the established expences: the excursion to Weymouth in 1804 and 1805 added no less than £20,000 to the *extras*: the king of Great Britain cannot travel as a private person may: he can command frugality in generals, but he cannot intermeddle in it, in particulars. His visitors from foreign sovereigns must be honourably supported: while the Persian emperor allows the British envoy a Mehemander, and maintains him and his company, can the king of England do less than return the compliment, at a fair allowance? The Persian ambassador's establishment in this country cost £11,074. That to the Algerine ambassador for the same purpose, is stated at £40 per week. The expences of missions for peculiar services make a considerable part of the extra disbursements in one department of this establishment: nor should the expense of buildings, in foreign countries, and distant courts, whether *de novo*, or repairs, where necessary, fall on the ambassadors who inhabit them: the British palace at Constantinople and furniture, cost £25,375, though the site, &c. was a present from the Ottoman Porte. The expences attending the embassy to the court of Portugal in South America, cannot but be much more than when that court was resident in Portugal. In short, the political circumstances of the times in which we live render necessary a variety of expenses to meet exigencies, which not only are not foreseen, but which cannot be foreseen. Is it not so even in private life? The contingencies of the most private individual form no small part of his annual expenditure; but the contingencies to which the national business,—now more extensive than ever—has been exposed, as well at home, as abroad, have fallen with uncommon weight on the latter years of his Majesty's reign.

Abstract Account shewing the Total Amount of each Class, in each

CLASSES.	ESTIMATE laid before Parliament July 1804.	CHARGES		
		1805.		1806.
		£.	s. d.	£. s. d.
1 Royal Family	222,500 — —	222,500	— —	222,500 — —
2 Lord Chancellor, Speaker House of Commons, Judges, et al.	32,955 — —	32,895	15 9½	32,955 — —
3 Ministers at Foreign Courts	112,330 — —	119,228	18 2	104,525 17 64
4 Bills of Tradesmen and Artificers	172,505 19 4	296,761	9 6½	285,602 11 54
5 Menial Servants of Household	98,542 — 5	99,587	5 10	103,173 17 6
6 Lists of Pensions and Compensations	131,252 16 4	133,343	3 34	134,929 9 11½
7 Small Fees and Salaries payable out of Civil List Revenues	55,398 8 1	55,092	3 14	56,789 2 7½
8 Commiss. Treasury and Chanc. Excheq.	13,822 — —	13,822	— —	13,460 17 11½
• Occasional Payments	139,737 6 7	126,190	19 2	188,743 9 10½
	£ 979,043 10 9	1,099,421	14 10½	1,142,680 6 11½
Estimate 1804	979,043 10 9	979,043	10 9	979,043 10 9
Excess beyond Estimate	£ 120,378 4 1½	163,636	16 2½	

• The head of "Occasional Payments" has been closely examined by the Committee in their Report: and they have "pursued it through each of its principal articles." That branch of it, which consists of Special Service and Royal Bounty, is regulated by Act of Parliament, 1782, which enacts, That sums of money issued for Special Service or Royal Bounty, shall be entered in a book kept for that purpose in the Treasury, in order to be produced to either House of Parliament, if required. This book has been examined; but, in the judgment of the Committee, it contains articles not properly belonging to it, and the entries might be limited more than they have been. By comparison with former years, there has been a saving of more than £20,000 in the seven years, when proper allowances and deductions are made, including those which are no longer brought to this branch of the account. The whole, however, in the opinion of the Committee, is susceptible of a better arrangement.

An Account, showing the Amount of certain Charges upon the occasional Payments of the Civil List, for the Years 1801, 2 and 3, from which the Civil List Revenues were relieved by the Arrangement made in 1804.

	YEARS ENDING 5th JANUARY		
	1802.	1803.	1804.
			£.
Foreign Secret Service	25,000	25,000	25,000
Sheriffs for Conviction of Felons	16,560	7,590	10,500
Do. for Overpayments on their Accounts	2,909	69	4,618
Law Charges	5,000	5,000	20,000
Public Office Bow-street, including Horse Patrol	9,648	11,737	12,743
Protestant Dissenting Ministers in England	1,700	1,700	1,700
Do. in Ireland	800	800	800
For relief of the Poor French Protestant Clergy	1,718	1,718	1,718
Do. Laity	6,872	6,872	6,872
Expenses of Windsor Great Park	4,742	4,604	4,600
Sergeant at Arms to the House of Commons	1,372	2,066	2,588
Officers of the Houses of Lords and Commons	2,547	1,393	1,406
Vaudois Churches	1,828	1,828	1,828
Expenses of St. James's and Hyde Parks	585	379	157
	£ 81,281	70,756	94,540

Year, compared with the Estimate laid before Parliament in 1804.

IN THE YEARS ENDING 5TH JULY														
1807.			1808.			1809.			1810.			1811.		
£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
222,500	—	—	222,500	—	—	220,500	—	—	218,500	—	—	215,500	—	—
32,435	—	—	32,960	—	—	32,955	—	—	32,955	—	—	32,955	—	—
101,571 11 1	—	—	59,835	—	—	44,712 11 9	—	—	67,482 10 1	—	—	77,061 14 1	—	—
238,542 5 5	—	—	215,685 12 4	—	—	277,083	—	—	256,521 10 2	—	—	249,357 13 8	—	—
103,365 10 1	—	—	103,069 15 12	—	—	103,248 14 6	—	—	102,911 7 11	—	—	100,609 1 10	—	—
147,987 18 7	—	—	155,727 18 10	—	—	158,382 11 14	—	—	159,107 2 2	—	—	154,893 9 10	—	—
57,602 12 7	—	—	57,062 1 10	—	—	56,660 10 1	—	—	54,160 12 6	—	—	51,375 — 3	—	—
13,822 —	—	—	13,822 —	—	—	13,822 —	—	—	12,405 6 6	—	—	12,022 —	—	—
199,624 9 7	—	—	207,620 — 3	—	—	174,821 13 8	—	—	219,194 7 14	—	—	195,276 15 5	—	—
1,117,450 7 5	—	—	1,068,282 8 6	—	—	1,082,186 1 7	—	—	1,122,937 16 6	—	—	1,089,053 15 3	—	—
979,043 10 9	—	—	979,043 10 9	—	—	979,043 10 9	—	—	979,043 10 9	—	—	979,043 10 9	—	—
138,406 16 8	—	—	89,238 17 9	—	—	103,142 10 10	—	—	143,894 5 9	—	—	110,010 4 6	—	—

TOTAL Excesses in Seven Years £868,707 16s. 0d.

* * * The progressive increase of price in all the necessities and accommodations of life, is matter of indisputable notoriety and feeling among the public. It is, perhaps, one inevitable consequence of extended commerce, of accumulating wealth, and of general taxation. It is most sensible in the course of long reigns: Queen Elizabeth was more than once extremely angry on the subject; and certainly, she did not discover the true cause of the difference; the increasing wealth of her subjects acted unfavourably to the expenditure of her exchequer. As we value as curiosities, such accounts when they refer to the expences of our former kings, we see no reason why the following comparative scale of prices, should not be received with equal interest. It is at least, a record of prices for the years marked in it.

Price paid for the under-named Articles for His Majesty's Household and Kitchen, in the Years 1803, 1804, 1805, 1806, 1809, and 1811.

	1803.	1804.	1805.	1806.	1809.	1811.				
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Claret, per dozen	88	0	92	0	95	0	95	0	100	0
Hock, ditto	77	6	81	6	83	6	83	6	100	0
Madeira, ditto	68	6	72	0	74	0	74	0	76	6
Port, ditto	42	0	45	6	51	0	51	0	56	0
Sherry, ditto	44	0	49	6	51	6	51	6	55	0
Beer, per barrel	20	0	20	0	20	0	20	0	20	0
Fine Oil, per quart	5	0	5	0	5	0	5	0	10	0
Salt, per peck	3	9	3	9	3	9	5	3	5	3
Spirits of Wine, per quart	6	6	6	6	7	0	7	6	8	0
Tallow, per dozen	12	6	12	6	12	0	11	6	16	0
Cream, per pint	1	3	1	3	1	3	1	6	1	6
Milk, per quart	0	4	0	4	0	4	0	4	0	5
Butter, per lb.	1	7	1	7	1	6	1	6	1	11
Bacon, do	0	11	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	1
Cheese, do	0	10	0	10	0	11	0	11	0	11
Fuel, per chaldron	62	0	53	6	54	0	55	10	68	0
Eggs, per hundred	20	0	44	0	20	0	18	0	20	0
Mutton, per lb.	0	9	0	9	0	8	0	8	0	9
Cock Turkeys	10	0	9	0	11	0	14	0	12	6
Capon	5	0	6	0	7	0	7	6	12	6
Pullet	3	6	4	6	4	9	4	9	5	6
Vinegar, per gallon	0	10	0	10	0	10	0	10	0	10
Sperm Oil, per quart	2	6	2	4	2	6	2	11	2	6
Bread	0	4	0	4	0	4	0	5	0	5
Lemons, &c	0	3	0	3	0	3	0	3	0	3
Wax, per lb.	3	11	3	11	4	2	4	2	4	10

Reports of the late John Smeaton, F.R.S.
made on various Occasions in the Course
of his Employment as a Civil Engineer.
In three Volumes 4to. Price £7 7s.
Longman and Co., London: 1812.

THE versatile opinion of mankind is but too often beguiled in forming an estimate of real glory. Because the effects of military achievements are felt suddenly, though they are seldom lasting, military glory dazzles the eyes of the multitude. Whereas, in fact, the genius which subdues the difficulties opposed by nature to his beneficial exertions, and accomplishes purposes from which his compatriots derive advantage during many years, *this* is the true object of permanent applause. Such a man lays the world at large under obligations not to be forgotten; he augments the strength of the nation of which he is a member, together with the welfare of individuals; he teaches and enables hundreds of laborious arms to execute with speed and vigour what without his ingenuity were tedious and exhausting; he promotes the intercourse between county and county of the same kingdom; he reduces to system the scattered principles or practices of the merely operative and unenlightened; while he combines with new powers whatever of appropriate he discovers among their inventions. His talents are truly *pro bono publico*; and much is present excellence and future prosperity beholding to him. This is eminently true in regard to that description of artists now distinguished among us under the title of Civil Engineers. Fifty years ago scarcely was this profession known. A few men of science had, indeed, in a loose and unconnected manner directed their attention to performances of the same nature as those now included in this branch of business: but this skill was rather personal to themselves than general to the public; and the occasions of employing it were by no means frequent. Though Sir Hugh Myddleton had brought the New River to London, yet there was no general *practice* in the construction of canals: though corn was ground by the power of water, yet the infinitely varied application of water-mills to mechanical operations was rather sur-

prised than realized; though the steam engine was invented by Capt. Savery, yet the diversified and improved application of it remained a *desideratum*. The period about which science became general, may safely be fixed at, or near the accession of his present majesty. From 1760 a new era commenced in the arts and sciences, learned and polite; as if a start by agreement had been made by the different studies which contribute to the comfort, the beauty, and the prosperity of a country.

About that time the professors of the polite arts associated as a body; and mutual information at once corroborated and directed that emulation which sprung from a spirit of honourable and meritorious rivalry. Then, too, the manufactures of the country were extended by the enterprise, the capital, and the science, which were brought into the common stock by men of indefatigable industry, persevering research, and deep and varied knowledge. New towns sprung up where formerly barrenness had prevailed; and thousands of laborious artisans populated districts which had never before resounded with "the busy hum of men." This produced a desire for, or rather enforced the *necessity* of, better communications between settlement and sett'ement, town and town. The necessity of better communications introduced new modes of communication; hence a demand for science in another form,—internal navigation; and in the train of this followed works of wonderful ingenuity, of real utility, of extent and magnitude, almost beyond limitation. In connexion with the spread of internal water carriage, the harbours of our island required improvement, for purposes of convenience and safety to the greatly increased numbers of vessels by which foreign commerce was maintained. Hence arose the profession of civil engineer. Men of strong genius directed their talents to these pursuits; their services became greatly in request; until at length we have seen them attain a consideration to which the legislature itself has paid a willing deference.

To that deference our pages bear repeated witness; and the author of the work before us had he lived, would have occupied a most respectable and honourable station in our Reports among the for-

most of his brethren. Britain is indebted to no foreign importation for the skill of her engineers: they rose to influence from the impulse of native abilities and national demand. They were, if not created, yet matured under the protection of a people become great in this department, from the industry and steadiness of their manufacturing workmen, and their superior knowledge in practical chemistry, mechanics, natural philosophy, and other useful accomplishments.

Among the first of the profession in time, as well as in rank, was Mr. John Smeaton; who was born May 28, 1724, at Aughtorpe, near Leeds, in Yorkshire; where also he died, October 1792, aged 68. From a short account of him prefixed to these volumes, we learn, that he was born an engineer. His playthings were constructions of mechanic art; his early delight was in observing artificers at work; and his amusements were imitations of what he had seen them construct, whether wind mills or water pumps. He made his own tools; and this, we presume to think, was the best of all qualifications for his future eminence: hereby, he acquired practical information without formal study; he obtained a sort of intuitive conviction of the possibilities and powers of engines, and learned in all probability, as much to guide his determinations in after life, from his failures as from his successes:

His father was an attorney, and intended his son for his own profession; but law was not his delight; neither were the courts at Westminster "suited to the bent of his genius." About 1750 he commenced philosophical instrument maker in London. He now communicated several valuable papers to the Royal Society, of which body he was elected a member in 1753. The next year he visited Holland, in order to inspect the curious works of art which then adorned that country. In December, 1755, the Eddystone Lighthouse was burnt down; when the Earl of Macclesfield recommended Mr. S. to the office of rebuilding it: this he completed in 1759. He published an ample account of his proceedings in that duty in 1791; folio, with plates. A truly interesting work, displaying the *resolution* of genius, together with its resources. It deserves distinc-

tion, also, as being the *original* of many which have succeeded it, and which never would have been thought practicable, had not Smeaton shewn what might be done.* In 1764, Mr. S. was chosen one of the receivers of the Derwentwater estates, which he greatly improved for the benefit of Greenwich hospital. They contained mines of lead, with silver, &c. He held this situation till 1779, when his business was so greatly increased as to render him incapable of attending to the duties it required. In 1785 Mr. Smeaton's health began to decline; and he determined to prepare his works for publication: but he completed only the history of the Eddystone. He engaged on the great work at Ramsgate; but is known to have said that he suffered more from a tedious attendance on parliament about this time, to promote a canal from Birmingham to Worcester, than from any business he had ever undertaken. Sept. 16, 1792, he was struck with the palsy, which terminated fatally, Oct. 28, following.

A principal incident in Mr. Smeaton's life, including an instance of the promptitude and independance of his mind, is related in these memoirs, and deserves insertion: it shews what may be effected by men of sense, even in opposition to fashion itself. Let no man hereafter ascribe his ruin by card-playing to the immobile establishments of custom;—unless he be a fool, or his company be knaves.

Early in life Mr. S. attracted the notice of the late Duke and Duchess of Queensbury, from a strong resemblance to their favorite Gay, the poet. The commencement of this acquaintance was singular, but the continuance of their esteem and partiality lasted through life.—Their first meeting was at *Ranelagh*, where, walking with Mrs. S., he observed an elderly lady and gentleman fix an evident and marked attention on him. After some time, they at last stopped him, and the Duchess (of eccentric memory) said, "Sir, "I don't know who you are, or what you are, but so strongly do you resemble my poor dear Gay, that we *must* be acquainted: "you shall go home and sup with us; and "if the minds of the two men accord, as do "the countenance, you will find two cheer-

* For an account of the Eddystone Light House, vide Panorama, Vol. IV. p. 339. For the Light House on the Bell Rock, which is nearly allied to the Eddystone, vide Vol. II. p. 649. XI. p. 311.

" ful old folks, who can love you well; and
" I think (or you are an hypocrite) you can
" as well deserve it."—The invitation was accepted; and as long as the Duke and Duchess lived, the friendship was as cordial as uninterrupted; indeed, their society had so much of the *play* which genuine wit and goodness know how to combine, that it proved to be among the most agreeable relaxations of his life.—A sort of amicable and pleasant hostility was renewed whenever they met, of talents, and of good humour; in the course of which, he effected the abolition of that indiscriminate play, [at games of chance] among people of superior rank or fortune, which compels every one to join, and at their own stake too.—My father [Mr. S.] detested cards, and his attention never following his game, he played like a boy; [playing one time with the Duke and Duchess,] the game was *Pepe Joan*, the general run of it was high; and the stake in "*Pepe*" had accidentally accumulated to a sum more than serious. It was my father's turn by the deal, to *double it*, when regardless of his cards, he busily made minutes on a scrap of paper, and put it on the board. The Duchess eagerly asked him *what it was?* and he as coolly replied,—" Your Grace will recollect the field in which my house stands may be about 5 acres, 3 rods, and 7 perches, which at thirty years purchase, will be just my stake, and if your Grace will make a Duke of me, I presume the winner will not dislike my mortgage."—The joke and the lesson had alike their weight; and they never afterwards played but for the merest trifles.

Mr. Smeaton's papers were purchased from his family by Sir Joseph Banks; and are now published under the direction of the Society of Civil Engineers, of which he was a member, if not rather the father. It is due to the liberality of Sir Joseph, and the society, to state, that the profits of this publication are to become the property of the author's representatives.

We are partial to the Reports of practical men: from them we learn the difficulties they have encountered in the course of their profession, with the devices they adopted to overcome them. In these communications we contemplate the powers exerted by the tempestuous ocean, which differ with different exposures; the effect of those powers on the land, often to its absolute dissolution; the ruin and havoc spread all around from the wreck of the best constructed edifices intended to weather its fury. Or, under another

view, we witness irresistible accumulations of sand, which though deposited grain by grain, merely, in time change the properties of the coast, and choke up the noblest harbours. The enemy never slumbers; like Time he admits no truce; he may flatter under the appearance of smoothness and calm; but his fairest flatteries are deceitful; no tide rises without an influx of injury, with which it lines the shore as it recedes. Rivers are scarcely less delusive; they flow with apparent equality to-day, but they swell into impetuous torrents to-morrow: they seem to afford a solid bed of gravel, or even rock, for a foundation; but beneath are quicksands, or interspersed are fissures: through these the infuriated water of the winter's flood penetrates, and the best constructed labours of art, sink into remediless destruction. Less obvious enemies—enemies to be examined only by the assistance of a microscope, are equally destructive; though feeble, each by itself, though soft, tender, and easily crushed, though apparently desppicable, yet by their numbers they weaken by perforations the solid oak, itself, and demand the united assistance of genius and knowledge to restrain their devastations. Of this we have a remarkable instance in Mr. S.'s report on the pier of Bridlington harbour; an artificial shelter for vessels, but of great utility and importance from its situation. The subject is not only curious in itself as an article of natural history, as well as otherwise; but the remedy may afford a hint worth recollecting.

It has unfortunately happened, not only that these piers are subject to the gradual decay that necessarily must attend all works of wood, when exposed to the action of the sea, but also to a particular kind of decay arising from the continual eating of a certain species of worm that infects the timber work of this harbour, greatly differing from the common worm whereby ships are destroyed, and which is said to have been originally brought from the West Indies.

This worm appears as a small white substance, much like a small maggot, so small as not to be seen distinctly without a magnifying glass, and even then a distinction of parts is not made out; it does not attempt to make its way through the wood longitudinally, or along with the grain, as is the case with the common ship's worm, but directly, or rather a little obliquely inward; the holes made by each worm are small, proportioned

to the size of the worm, but they are so many in number as to be but barely clear of each other; as they do not appear to make their way by means of any hard tools or instruments, but rather by some species of a dissolvent liquor, furnished by the juices of the animal itself; it follows that as the animals which overspread the whole surface of the timber exposed to their action, proceed progressively forwards into the body of the wood, the outward crust becomes incinerated and rotten, and gradually washes away by the beating of the sea, so that in fact the timbers, planks, &c. gradually waste in size and thickness, till at last, becoming too weak to support the strain upon them, they are obliged to be replaced and new done, many years sooner than would happen by the natural decay of timbers in such circumstances, if unaffected by the worm.

The worm is found lodged in a crust of wood, generally from a quarter to half an inch deep, that part of the wood under this crust remaining perfectly sound. The rate of progression, as I am told, is, that a three inch oak plank will be destroyed in eight years, by action from the outside only.

It is furthermore observed, that these animals do not live except where they have the action of the water almost every tide; for they are not found in the timbers above the level of common neap tides, high water, or indeed scarcely so high; so that it is to be inferred, that if any happen to fix so high as the common neap tide mark, if a few low tides fall out together with still water, as frequently happens in summer, the worm thus unashed dies, and a stop is put to its further progress higher.

Again, it is very obvious that so high up as the piles and work are covered with sand, or as soil lies against it, the wood is perfectly free from the worm, so that the parts affected are what are also exposed to the air, that is from the surface of the ground or sand to high water neap tides. Whether a deprivation of the sea water, accompanied by a continual change every tide, or a deprivation of the benefit of the free circulating air each tide, occasions the loss of what is necessary to their subsistence, may be a question, but which, indeed, it does not seem necessary now to resolve; this however is the fact; for on the inside of the planking against which the ballast, sand, or gravelly matter which is heaped by way of filling and giving solidity to the pier's base, and which in general is filled above the high water neap tides, is also found to be a preservation to the inside of the planking, though from the outside only they will waste, as has been said, three inches in eight years.

Of late years there being a scarcity of oak, fir plank has been tried in some places; but

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that is found to be still more subject to the worm than oak.

The mode Mr. Smeaton recommended by which to destroy this worm was, by coating the piles and planks with a layer of tar and oakum, or tar and hair, driven in with chocks to every little vacancy, and forming a complete facing to all parts exposed to the action of the sea; and making the general surface of the whole tolerably smooth, to sheathe it as ships are sheathed; the superficies of this covering to be filled with sheathing nails; which affected by the salt water, will throw a coat of iron rust over the whole surface, and thereby render it too hard for the worm: or if it be not absolutely impervious to the worm, the sheathing if found corroded may be replaced at a small expence. Where this course was not applicable, as between some of the irregular piles, Mr. S. advised the insertion of a body of brick and tarras mortar, which by filling up all the space would fairly *build out* the worm.

This is a specimen of the difficulties with which the engineer has to struggle, when engaged against nature at sea; by land he creates artificial rivers, and carries them over summits where nature intended that water should be known as drainage only. He unites county to county; he delves deep into the bowels of a mountain to obtain a level, or form a tunnel; he elevates arches or causeways; he constructs locks, or inclined planes; he displays all the resources of his art to open, or to facilitate connections between towns, or manufactures, or seas, separated by impediments which nature had thought barriers sufficient; but over which art triumphs, with no silent exultation.

Mr. Smeaton suggested also many improvements on our machinery: he simplified the construction of some, and diversified the powers of others: he constructed pumps of various descriptions; blowing engines; blasting machines, boring machines, furnaces, of varieties which we cannot particularize.

To all workmen in this profession, we heartily recommend these volumes: they injure themselves if they remain ignorant of their contents: gentlemen, also, from an acquaintance with them, may learn what has been done, and therefore what

may be done, when occasion requires it. Nothing is more vexatious to the susceptibility of genius than the demand of a real impossibility, recommended under some plausible disguise;—except, perhaps, the remarks of that insolent ignorance which when a work is done, discovers no merit in the best of services, or makes no allowance for failures absolutely inevitable;—that thankless spirit of repining, which when all goes well grieves that it does not go better, or suffers itself on occasion of some trifling defect to indulge a disgust conceived against the meritorious whole.

Mr. Smeaton certainly had his prejudices, his warmths, his sallies, and even his obstinacies; but in his cooler moments he could very fairly estimate the merits of others; and provided a thing were well done, he could discern motives for praise in the greater branches of an operation, while narrow spirits or contracted understandings, rendered themselves miserable by dwelling on errors detected in minutiae. One instance of his manner and principles of judgment is too honourable to his memory to be passed over. Giving his opinion on Coldstream-bridge, he says,

This is of the kind that are best judged of by comparison; we have seen instances of bridges as long, as broad, and as high, built for a less sum; but, either they have been built in a more gentle river, or their piers have not been laid so deep below the low water surface, or below the bed of the river; or they have been laid on a more uniform stratum of matter, or less scrupulously secured, or they have been built with smaller stones, or less exactly put together; so that taking in the whole, I believe there has been no example of any bridge being built for so small a sum, where circumstances have been equal or similar: and it is much to the credit of Mr. Reid, the surveyor of the work, that every thing that has been tried has succeeded; and the whole has been done without loss of life or limb to any one concerned.

The paper on the supply of the city of Edinburgh with water,—a supply which does not naturally increase as the city becomes more extensive and populous, and therefore demands greater abundance—is curious; as is that at the close of the work, on the measures of coal at Newcastle, with the reference of their weight antiently, to the powers of the pack-horses by which they were carried. The

multiplicity of wheel carriages in use at present has banished the custom of pack-horses; and in very few places, if any, are they now known, except by recollection of the elder inhabitants. Since the invention of coal waggon roads, and carriages adapted for the purpose; of powerful machines, and gins for drawing coals from great depths; since the laying of waggon ways, &c. &c. the carriage of coals has assumed a new character; and the powers of a horse's back to sustain a load laid over it, are no longer the basis of any calculation of weight or admeasurement. So greatly do improvements when become general, tend to obscure the origin of customs and dealings! and to that obscurity in fact, nothing contributes more effectually than the increased powers discovered, invented, or applied by this truly respectable profession,—of the civil engineer.

This work is embellished and greatly elucidated by a series of plates, in number 74; representing plans of ports and harbours, of canals, buildings, their parts, &c. of implements, of various kinds, and for various purposes. They form a very valuable addition; and with the practical directions incidentally given to workmen, &c. contribute greatly to the value of the performance.

An Essay on Consciousness; or a Series of Evidences of a Distinct Mind. By John Fearn. Second Edition, corrected and enlarged. Qto. pp. 396. £1. 11s. 6d. Longman and Co. London; 1812.

This is a difficult subject; that we are conscious, we know; but when we attempt to define the mode of our consciousness, definition, and explanation fail us. To describe it in a few words, is impossible. Our author has extended his Essay from a humble octavo in his first edition, to a handsome quarto in his second; and we venture to foretell that should a third edition be called for, it may reach a formidable folio; and after all, leave much unsaid, that might be said; and much in obscurity, that inferior geniuses will not fail to wish Mr. F. had enlightened. Unhappily, the perusal of this *Essay on Consciousness*, reminds us of our defects; and we have not been able,—from that cause, we suppose, to peruse it with edi-

ification equal to what the author intended, or to what we take for granted, it may furnish. If we rightly understand Mr. F.'s hypothesis the mind is, in the body, a strong resemblance to those quicksilvered globes which we see hanging in the windows of the opticians' shops, in our public streets in the city of London. On these, the images of all that passes, good, bad and indifferent, rough or smooth, pleasant or unpleasant, frightful or attractive, are received; and were it flexible like a blown bladder, they might be said to *impress* this pendent expansion. We are not *conscious* of intending any slight to the author of this hypothesis, when we affirm that some minds of our acquaintance are aptly illustrated by the comparison. They receive ideas of objects while the objects themselves are before them; but whether they be persons or things, professions, promises, acknowledgements, duties, or obligations, no sooner are the causes of these appearances removed, than a new set of figures occupy their place, and float over the surface, — a thousand times a day. This spherule is inflexible: it therefore cannot be expected that it should possess all the properties of that to which our author has directed his attention; and on which he expatiates. His train of argument may be best understood from his own language; for who can state his sentiments so well as himself?

Of various Cases explained by the Hypothesis of a Spherule Mind.

Sensation being considered as *occasioned by proper Motions*, producing *Flexures* in the surface of the mind, I shall, further on, have occasion to argue, upon physical grounds, that each of our *five external senses* displays *Flexures of different natural Magnitudes*. — I shall, also, have to argue that *sensual ideas* (resembling *sensations*,) are accompanied by similar *motions*, producing *Flexures* in the surface of the mind: and, that *Flexures* apposited with *sensual mere ideas*, are *smaller* than the *Flexures* apposited with our *finest sensations*.

This being for the present supposed, it should follow, on the Hypothesis of a *Spherule*, that if a man be in distress, or passion, he will lose his *ideas*, (that is, lose *memory* or *presence of mind*,) before he will lose the weakest of his *five external senses*: for it is evident, that as the *Tension* of the *Spherule* always *increases* with increase of any unpleasant *interest*, the *surface* must become

less flexible the more we are previously affected.

Now, it is always observed, that on *alarm*, or deep occupancy, if any sense fail, a man's *presence of mind* or *memory* is the very *first* mode of intelligence that *fails* him: the like happens under violent anger, or any other passion, and equally so under sensual pain. — It is not less true, that in *extreme* cases even our *external senses fail*; and the *weakest always first*.

I once knew a brave man, who, with several others, was left on board a captured ship, the hostile crew of which were Indians, a party of whom, during the removal of the prisoners, had secreted themselves below, in the hope of retaking their vessel. With this purpose they assaulted the captors, at night; their attack was most sudden, sanguinary, and dismal; and this man, (who with only one or two others survived) assured me, that at the moment of *surprise* his *sight failed* him, though it was in a fine moonlight: but quickly recovering himself, he fought vigorously, and escaped. I knew the man to possess both courage and veracity; and I have no doubt of the truth of his statement.

This case I explain, agreeably to my subject, by supposing that *sudden fear* had strained his mind so as to *expel his vision* by preventing those minute motions of *mental surface* which vision occasions. — And here I am to observe, that the expulsion did not arise from his *attending to other objects*, because his eyes were strained toward his enemies, though they, (at one time,) conveyed no intelligence. Here *no foreign cerebral Vibration* could *overcome his sight*, whilst his eyes and *whole mind* were bent upon his *dreadful assailants*.

I have been told of persons who *lost vision* whilst a horse ran away with them; and of a wounded person, in *agony*, riding some miles on a horse *without noting any thing*. — More than this I have heard it said, that a man of *cultivated mind* has been known, in the presence of an august assembly, to be so confused, as to *see a written paper as a blank*.

Perhaps almost every man of experience and observation has marked numberless instances wherein mere *bashfulness*, *shame*, or other such affection has, for the moment, prevented a susceptible person's eyes, and ears, from conveying intelligence from the objects before them. In short it would be endless to recount the variety of cases in which a *strong affection* prevents not only *memory*, but *also vision*; and, in *extreme cases*, overrules *almost all sensations*, at least for the moment.

It is however well known, that such *extreme distensions* of the mind cannot, (or never do) *last any length of time*, if the

sufferer be above idiocy. And, however deep our agony or passion may be, for a *moment*, or a *few moments*, or perhaps a few *minutes*, some change *very soon* takes place.—This is well accounted for when we consider, that if fear, or other passion, *amount to despair*, the mind *instantly relaxes*, and lets in, new affections; and, if such passion *do not amount to despair*, there is always a *possible* admittance for any *accidental impulse* which may change the scene.—Add to this, that our nerves *cannot inflict agony*, in a continuous motion, for any great length of *time*; though they may durably convey much *pain, short of agony*.—We also know, that every mind is exposed to a thousand assaults both from *memory*, and *external things*; insomuch that it *never can be long without some new impulse*.—In truth, it seems to be the inevitable condition of a human mind, during vigilance, to be *continually changing*, either by great or by little steps.

It is very well known that men perform all *nice bodily actions* that they are accustomed to, such as *music*, and *billiards*, with an effort so very slight, that it scarce surpasses the least degree of mental agitation; whilst it must happen, (on the Hypothesis of a *Spherule*,) that the same *surface* which *receives sensations*, is that which must *react* upon the nerves in all motions of the body. Now, *ideas* are supposed to be accompanied by *faint reproductions* of the *traces* of sensations in the *surface* of the mind; and it is probable that the motions of mind which *convey musical action*, may not much differ in strength from those *revived lesser motions* which accompany *sensual mere ideas*.—The probability of this will be shewn farther on; but here, supposing it to be so, it should follow, that any mental affection sufficiently strong to prevent *memory*, should, perhaps, evidently affect *correct nice bodily action*, such as *music*, *billiards*, and the like.

Such, it is well known, is *fact*; for if we be affected by pain, choler, fear, shame, or other passion, we shall neither *remember*, nor accomplish any *delicate bodily purpose*, with any thing like the *nicety* that we can do when we are *tranquill*.

If a man be either *timid*, or *over-hot*; at *play*, or in *combat*, he shall not manage his weapon so expertly, though life itself depend upon the stake, as if he were cool and deliberate: and in such a state if he have a *cause* to plead, he shall find his *memory* serve him *very sorely*.

How often do we acknowledge, that we were so *concerned*, *ashamed*, *surprised*, or *angered*, that we quite *forgot* those very things which it was our best interest to have either *said* or *done*? and find the *memory* of them come provokingly, to taunt our *inability*, the moment any of these passions

have left the mind sufficiently *relaxed* to admit *correct thinking*.

To conclude this argument, it seems obviously to appear, why *correct delicate motions*, such as serve to *occasion thinking, memory, imagination, and delicate bodily action*, must be impaired, (and perhaps nearly in equal degree,) by strong affections, if we admit *all affections* to be *occasional by motions in the surface of a flexible Spherule*; which *Spherule* must be *less capable of fine motions*, in proportion as the degree of its *actual tension* renders its *surface less easily further flexible*.

Now I think, the *order of government* of every species of *consciousness* hitherto considered, seems accounted for with probability, by treating the mind as a *flexible Spherule*. And the *concomitance of motion, flexure, and tension*, explains the *physical analogy* of such *government*.

The Book of Job, literally translated from the Original Hebrew, and restored to its Natural Arrangement; with Notes, and an introductory Dissertation. By John Mason Good, F.R.S. 8vo. Pp. Introduction, xcii. Text and Notes, 491. Price 16s. Black and Co. London, 1812.

A bold, spirited, learned, and useful work. Mr. Good has long been known as a man of talents; and the present volume will add to his repute and distinction. We are glad to see the book of Job become the subject of repeated and strict investigation; for the purpose of translation, in the first instance, and for the scarcely less interesting purpose of general criticism, in consequence.

The original is one of those works on which too much cannot be said in its praise. The writer was evidently master of his subject; and familiar with all the resources of his art. His knowledge was extensive and general; it was also critical and exact. All nature is open to his view; and he explores the deepest recesses of the human mind. Nevertheless, he dwells more particularly on facts within reach of a native of Arabia; and his stores are drawn most freely from the country between the Euphrates and the Persian Gulf, on the East; and the river Nile and Egypt on the West. He does not travel far North, or far South: perhaps, to Lebanon or to Damascus, northward; and to the termination of the Arabian Peninsula southward.

Though received by us in Hebrew, the language of this divine poem abounds so greatly in Arabisms, that some have supposed it was originally written in Arabic, while others content themselves with inferring that in the early ages the two languages were so little different, that what now passes for Arabism was then pure Hebrew. It might be so; but this is certain, that to those critics who have been most familiar with Arabic, we are most deeply indebted for elucidating obscure expressions, and discovering beauties where formerly the learned found blanks, or hazarded to guess at a meaning. In a language that has long ago ceased to be spoken, and of which the remains are preserved in a single volume, it cannot be wondered at that we find difficulties. Rather ought we to congratulate the world that so much is understood, under circumstances so discouraging. Men of letters on the Continent have laboured with great assiduity in illustrating this poem. The two Schultenses of Holland, Vogel and Reiske of Germany;—though the latter allowed his conception of what *ought to be* too frequently to invade his critical province of illustrating what *is*.

To each of these, and indeed to almost every interpreter, we are indebted for something; for some progress in discovery, though small, or imperfect. But after all, we can hardly refrain from acquiescing in the sarcastic observation of Scheuzer, who speaking of a certain passage, says, "these verses are so obscure, that only the interpretations of critics can be more so." Cocceius commented on Job: it might be wished that Job himself, would come and comment on Cocceius."

To add to our difficulties, the division into chapters has not only separated parts of the same speech, and thereby rendered the conclusion especially, weak and imperfect, but, in some places the division breaks off the sense, at a comma; and the continuation of a sentiment is parted, so that here the sense seems to have no ending, and there to have no beginning. Mr. G. has happily relieved himself from this unfortunate cause of obscurity and error. The inaccurate division of words is another defect; but for this the moderns are not solely responsible; many of these blemishes may be traced in remote antiquity.

Among ourselves, we have translators

in prose and verse. Mr. Samuel Wesley, father of the celebrated John Wesley, loaded our shelves with a bulky folio. Grey did better, by re-publishing the Latin version of Albert Schultens. Sandys and Scott composed translations in verse. To name no others, we distinguish among more recent attempts, the hasty version of Dr. Stock, Bishop of Killala, in 1805; and the draft outline of a translation by the elegant and ingenious Miss Smith. We are afraid, that to these rapid performances we must add the volume before us: for which the author apologizes by informing us, "that the whole of the translation (from the impracticability of allotting any other time to it) has been the work of various unconnected hours and half hours, stolen occasionally from the mornings and evenings of the returning Sunday, and never indulged in through any other part of the week; often moreover, broken in upon in spite of every arrangement to the contrary, by urgent professional claims that did not admit of postponement."

This is not exactly the kind of leisure that we could wish were devoted to a translation of Job. We know, by experience that long continued research, from author to author, is sometimes necessary to obtain a glimpse of the real meaning of many a term in this book; and after that glimpse is obtained, scarcely less consideration is demanded to select such expressions as may convey the power or import felt by the mind, to a reader who has not himself taken a single step towards acquiring that knowledge which may enlighten or guide his judgment.

Mr. G. has exerted himself with good effect, to render his work a complete thing. His Introduction contains matter very proper to be known, and indeed requisite to whoever desires accurate acquaintance with the Book under consideration. In default of the history of Ishmael and his family, which is broken off in the Hebrew writings, Mr. G. has had recourse to the Arab history, with which he connects that of Job; and to the writers of that nation, from whom he obtains many judicious explanations of terms evidently preserved in that dialect, though to us, lost from the Hebrew. He places the scene of the poem in Arabia Petraea: he describes the Speakers as Idumeans, and supposes Job himself to have been of that

country: He prefers to accept the land of Hor, or of Sir, as the land of Uz. To the geographical scene of events marked by Mr. G. we make no objection. Neither shall we object to the characters drawn by him, in his Analysis of the Poem, of the three elder friends of Job. But his notion of the character of Elihu, is, in our judgment, very imperfect; and his feeling of the transitions of his author, has not been sufficient to guide his version in parts, where, as we conceive, it was peculiarly necessary. As Mr. G. is not the only translator who has failed in this particular, we shall, in the present article, endeavour to explain our view of the subject, taken generally; we propose, in another, to examine the translation of certain distinct passages taken separately.

We presume, that the Apostle James, chap. v. ii. has hinted correctly the intent of this Poem, "Ye have heard of the patience of Job, and have seen the end of the Lord, that the Lord is very pitiful, and of tender mercy." The book of Job, is, 1. A vindication of the Divine Sympathy with suffering man: 2. An example, by which suffering man is encouraged to wait the conclusion and effect of Divine Dispensations. If we examine it closely, we find all parts of the composition contributing to the first of these purposes; while the inference from the whole, contributes to the second. But there is also a kind of continued inference to be drawn by the reader, from the particulars discussed in the progress of the work. This has seldom been clearly understood by translators and critics; certainly not by general readers. Of what avail to Job, is the assurance that prey is given to the roaming lioness? does it assuage the pain of one of his boils? or convince him of having reasoned inconsequentially in a single instance? Why describe the horse, with his properties, or the Eagle? — were it not better to cure Job's distemper, without losing a moment? But, the reader is expected to draw the intended inference *in passing*: — this wisdom is not likely to err in its dealings with man. The Behemoth and Leviathan are made by God, and subject to his power: he rules over these great creatures; — he equally rules over whatever agency has inflicted these sufferings on Job. But the author does not at first introduce this argument, nor au-

thorise this inference. The early part of the discussion turns on the incredibility of the fact that Job should be thus afflicted, unless he had deserved it: we had almost said, doubly deserved it, 1 by his crimes, 2 by the hypocrisy with which he had covered those crimes. Against these imputations, Job defends himself valiantly: but he answers nothing to the reasoning of Elihu in which the inferential train of argument (so to call it, for distinction) begins; and when the same is enforced and concluded by the Divinity, Job confesses himself vanquished and penitent. It is remarkable, that although the three friends of Job are reprimanded by God at the close of the Poem, yet Elihu receives neither praise nor blame. He is not even mentioned.

Elihu then, we consider as *introductory* to the main argument of the piece: he is also introductory to the appearance of the Divinity. He starts upon us unexpectedly; but he announces himself in a manner so polite, so pleasing, so modest, that we discover him instantly to be a man of sense and discernment, and are strongly attracted to hear what so reasonable a character has to say. He is the medium between the rash accusers of the suffering patriarch and the Sovereign Determinator. He does not altogether clear Job; neither does he altogether condemn him: he speaks as a man, though he argues in behalf of God. He reasons as an observer upon earth; as one subject to atmospherical and terrestrial influences; as one who had drawn his principles from facts beheld: whereas the Almighty speaks as *HE* who appointed those facts; on whom alone it depended to have exchanged them for others. He could, had he so pleased, have given the nature of the wild goat to the lion: he could have caused the eagle and the ostrich to change places: surely, then, he could also have prevented the sufferings of Job. Why did he not give wings to the behemoth and the Leviathan? The answer to this, readily and equally explains why he suffered the prosperity of *his servant* to be interrupted: the *END* of the Lord justifies his proceedings.

The poem has three stages: — the first and the last are too obvious to be mistaken: the second demands more distinction than it has usually received. Job

could not with decency answer the Almighty; and cross-examine him; but he might have cross-examined Elihu, as much as he pleased. This advantage Mr. G. has not fully understood or enforced. He renders the expressions of Elihu:

The affliction of God actuateth me :
The inspiration of the Almighty giveth me impulse—

If thou art able, refute me :—

No : if Elihu was really *inspired* by the Holy Spirit at this moment,—to refute the Holy Spirit by which he spake, was not Job's place. Our public version is therefore preferable : referring to the general principles of human life, he says, The spirit of God hath made me ; The breath of the Almighty hath given me life—My terror shall not make thee afraid :

No : I have no terror, I am simply a man, thy fellow, though on this occasion, thy argumentative adversary.

The conclusion of Elihu's discourse also, was intended, if we rightly conjecture, to prepare the reader for somewhat of an unusual appearance. It does not describe *any ordinary* whirlwind, storm, or tempest; but a specific and visible phenomenon now approaching towards the scene of action. The nearest resemblance to it among the poets that we recollect, is that of Milton's angel descending in paradise :

Haste hither, Eve, and worth thy sight behold
Eastward among the trees, what glorious shape
Comes this way moving ; seems another morn
Ris'n on mid noon ;—

But with this we must connect Hebrew ideas ; we may find some in 1 Kings, xix. 11. Previously to the Lord's appearance, passed a great and strong wind—an earthquake—a fire ;—succeeded, a small still voice. That is to say, the harbingers of the divinity were strikingly splendid and powerful : the Divinity himself was placidity and impassability. His presence is known merely by an audible communication, after his terrific precursors had vanished from the scene. They had cleared the way before him : and as it were purified the heavens. We must be allowed to think, that the author of the poem under consideration intended some hint of the duty executed by such harbingers

in the close of Elihu's speech, chap. xxxvii, 21. Mr. G. renders,

Even now we cannot look at the light
When it is resplendent in the heavens,
And a wind from the north has passed along and
cleared them :

Splendour itself is with God !

Insufferable majesty !

Almighty !—we cannot comprehend him,—

Surpassing in power and judgment !

Yet doth not the might of his justice oppress.

Let mankind, therefore, stand in awe of him ;

He looketh all the wise of heart to nothing.

Would not this sense be better ?—“And now do we not see the effulgent light itself seated in the (atmospheric) heavens ?

—For a wind from the north hath passed, and hath cleared the atmosphere, (so as to admit the very purity of light itself to shine out). Splendor comes along attendant on the Deity ! What terrible dignity of appearance ! Almighty ! Incomprehensible ! great his power ! his authority of judicial decision ! equally great his equity ! he browbeats none. Therefore let all mankind venerate him : not one who who is wise of heart can stand the sight of him.

—Then the Lord addressed himself to Job out of the whirlwind, &c.” The insertion of the particle *now* seems to fix time present : the allusion to the whirlwind, refers to some phenomenon immediately preceding, and obvious to the observers : what can it be, if not the splendor attendant on the self-revealing deity ? What nobler character of a judge, by which Job is to be tried, &c. can possibly be written, or conceived ? We almost realize a general prostration now taking place, as an act of worship and awe, by the patriarch and all around him. We might enlarge on the character given to this judge—his mercy—his power ;—together with the *sly* hint at the incompetency of the *wise of heart* (not the wicked, or profligate) to sustain his presence :—but we persuade ourselves, that when this transition is pointed out, Mr. G.'s good taste will perceive its beauty, and its *correctness*, too. And to whom so well as to Elihu could this introductory observation be assigned ? not to Job himself ; he sits silent in his affliction : not to either of his three elder friends ; they had not conducted themselves with sufficient correctness. The

speaker who by his arguments approaches towards those on which the controversy is to be decided, is the fittest person to notice this symbol of the divine presence, before which, with all the assembly, he becomes reverentially silent.

That the transitions from subject to subject are equally studied by the writer, we doubt not; though to make them clear in a translation is extremely difficult. Perhaps by shortly tracing the progressive sentiments of the afflicted sufferer, we may, however, illustrate this point. Job begins by cursing the day of his birth, and wishing he had not lived when born:—he then desires immediate death—next he desires to plead his cause with God (which implies a prolongation of life,)—he afterwards purposes to plead against his accusers—he complains of the want of sympathy in his friends—he proceeds to charge *them* with cruelty, but now revives some hope in God—he at length, as it were, abandons this world, and looks forward to future retribution. Not to follow this principle further, it is evident, that the poet artfully draws off Job from his opening violence: he gradually changes his feeling: would Job, at the end of his pleadings, curse the day of his birth, as he did at first? No: his grief is sunk from its original paroxysm, to a kind of settledness; “the majesty of woe.” In this silent solemnity of affliction, this subdued agony, he is further remonstrated with, and to a certain degree, convinced and soothed by Elihu: he is mollified preparatory to an acquiescent state of mind, which is happily completed by the appeals of the Deity to instances of his wisdom, conspicuous in the formation, and guidance of the world and its concerns.

Perhaps it is not refining too much to say, that as Job's convictions were excited, his personal sufferings diminished. As his mind advanced towards calmness, and exchanged its irritation for quietude,—as it indulged veneration and pious awe, his pains abated; his self possession was restored: the discourse of the deity was at the same time sanative to his body and to his mind. He was able, as invited, to gird up his loins like a man; and to compose a rational reply, undisturbed in mind, from bodily agony. This also is an inference that the writer leaves to be drawn; depending, as we conceive, on the sentiment of his country, that God would

not hold a controversy, with a man so broken down, so heavily afflicted.

The poet studiously in the opening of his poem, marks the progressive steps of the good man's calamity—the loss of his oxen, &c. by robbers—of his flocks by lightning—of his camels by marauding troops—of his children by a whirlwind—his personal sufferings by sore boils—by his wife's taunts. He observes similar gradations in the discourses of his friends, of Elihu, and of God;—and we should expect to find something of the same principle in the order in which the creatures appealed to, are arranged. If this idea be admissible, the *raven* follows the *lioness*, somewhat uncouthly: and to say the least, the term should be extended to a genus, instead of being, as it now is, restricted to a species.

This would lead, perhaps also, to a transposition of the place of the horse: the order seems to be, naturally,—divine power instanced in general provision for (a) beasts, and (b) birds, of prey: 2, wild creatures; *Beasts*. 1. the ibex, 2. the wild ass. 3. the rhinoceros: 4. a domesticated animal, the horse. *Birds*. 1. The ostrich, 2. the eagle: afterwards, Behemoth, and Leviathan.

Mr. Good considers Job as a real character, and Moses as the author of the poem. We go further, and say, that the arguments of Warburton, to prove that this is a work of Ezra, written to support the Jews under the pressure of the Babylonish captivity, are much more cogent to prove that it was intended to support the tribes during their bondage to the Pharaohs in Egypt. And supposing Job to have lived before Moses, the fame of their suffering kinsman would naturally be circulated among the sons of Jacob: they would have heard his story; and would have “seen the end of the Lord;” the application of his story to their own case was all that was wanting to cheer their hopes, and revive their expectations of deliverance. Could Moses prepare their minds better for receiving him as the instrument of their relief, than by familiarizing them to the subject of this most noble epic? They would draw inferences in plenty, as the stanzas were repeated in their hearing. They would make the use of it advised by the apostle James in after ages to suffering christians: especially as

the time fixed by patriarchal prophecy or their Exodus from Egypt drew nigh.

The *European* ears of the translator could not brook the opening and the close of this poem in prose; he therefore has formed them into metre. An Arab poet, we apprehend, would not have been so nice: and if Mr G. will consider what was in all probability the mode of publishing works, anciently, *i. e.* by rehearsal, he will find that different parts of this work *must* have been read, or repeated, by different persons: the introduction, therefore, required less dignity and finishing than the body of the work, and might employ the same speaker as the close. Prose in that case was no disadvantage. In the first instance the opening was sufficient to excite attention: In the latter, the main subject was over, and the speaker had only to express the issue in a few words, and to make a graceful exit. This change of speaker accounts also for the introductory prose line with which each speech is prefaced: it marks the rising, as it were, of a new dialogist, who by this announces the commencement of his part.

Or if it be objected that the *matter* of these portions—of the introduction, especially, is poetry, and poetry of the highest order, it might be worth the while to try whether a *rhythmus* of a different kind from that of the body of the work, would not suit the place, and meet the intention of the poet. Among ourselves this variety is not uncommon; and there seems to be a propriety in distinguishing the narrative from the dialogue, whatever means be adopted to accomplish it.

But, it is time to introduce Mr. G.'s own view of this book, to the reader. We quote from his 5th section.

CREED, DOCTRINE, AND RITUAL.

This inquiry will be found of no small moment or importance. For if I have succeeded in fixing the date of the book of Job at a period antecedent to the Egyptian exody, and of course to the Mosaic institution, and in bringing home the composition to Moses himself—then does this book immediately become a DEPOSITORY OF PATRIARCHAL RELIGION, the best and fullest depository in the world, and drawn up by that very pen which was most competent to do justice to it. Then also do we obtain a clear and decisive answer to the question which has so often been proposed,—What is the ultimate intention of the book of Job? and for what purpose is it introduced into the Hebrew and

Christian canons? It will then appear, that it is for the purpose of making those canons complete, by uniting as full an account as is necessary of the dispensation of the patriarchs with the two dispensations by which it was progressively succeeded. It will then appear that the chief doctrines of the patriarchal religion, as collected from different parts of the poem, were as follow:

I. The creation of the world by one supreme and eternal Intelligence.

II. Its regulation, by his perpetual and superintending providence.

III. The intentions of his providence carried into effect by the ministration of a heavenly hierarchy.

IV. The heavenly hierarchy, composed of various ranks and orders, possessing different names, dignities, and offices.*

V. An apostacy, or defection, in some rank or order of these powers: of which Satan appears to have been one, and perhaps chief.

VI. The good and evil powers or principles, equally formed by the Creator, and hence equally denominated "Sons of God;" both of them employed by him in the administration of his providence, and both amenable to him at stated courts, held for the purpose of receiving an account of their respective missions.

VII. A day of future resurrection, judgment, and retribution to all mankind.

VIII. The propitiation of the Creator, in the case of human transgressions, by sacrifices, and the mediation and intercession of a righteous person.

To the first, the second, and the third of these propositions, we suppose no opposition will be made, except, perhaps, to the term "hierarchy:" but the fourth, in which the ranks and gradations of that hierarchy is affirmed, will not pass so easily. It is remarkable, that this notion should be found most prominently in the semi-Hebrew writings: in this book, which is half Arabic, as some think; and in Daniel, which is Chaldee. It is probable, therefore, that this mode of speech and representation, is a compliance with the usages of people not strictly Hebrews. We are far from accusing Mr. G. of "intruding into things he has not seen;" neither shall we associate him with *Saint Thomas Aquinas*, whose 358 articles on

* As *obedim*, servants; *malacim*, angels; *melicim*, intercessors; *memitim*, destinies or destroyers; *alep*, the chiliad or thousand; *kedostim*, *SANCTI*, the heavenly saints or hosts generally. See ch. iv. 18. xxxiii. 22, 23, v. 2. xv. 15.

angels, may ever, if it please heaven, remain unequalled. We have seen other treatises on the angelic hierarchy, from which, as he values his understanding, we advise our learned author to keep due distance. But this censure has exceptions. For instance,

Mr. G. enlarges in explanation of the *memitim*, ministers of death; but he is completely wrong in assimilating them to the Fates, or *Parcae*, of the Greek and Roman writers. He quotes 2 Sam. xxiv. 16, for a "destroying angel;" and 1 Cor. x. 10: for "the destroyer;" a stronger passage to his purpose is Luke xii. 20. "Thou Fool, this night *they shall demand thy soul.*" That this has been thought the office of a spirit superior to men, is well known from a passage of Plato, who relates the sentiment of Socrates on this subject.

It is certainly possible, that as there are angels ministers of death, so there *may be* angels ministers of life: and Mr. G. supposes that he has found an instance of such an one; the means of restoring a patient from sickness to health, in Chap. xxxiii. 23.

We state the strength of his argument in his own words, from his note on this passage.

Ver. 23. —*one of the thousand.*] Not "one of a thousand," as rendered by all the translators. It is evidently a character of definite dignity, and closes the sublime and beautiful climax, which runs through the verse: see the preceding dissertation. "There shall be over him *an angel*"—but angels are ministers of judgment as well as of mercy; "there shall be over him *an angel of grace*; an intercessory angel, whose office is directly the reverse of the *Destinies* or ministers of death; yea, one of the supreme chiliad, the pre-eminent thousand that shine at the top of the empyreal hierarchy, possessed of transcendent and exclusive powers, and confined to functions of the highest importance.

The passage, taken as a whole, gives us a curious and valuable insight into some parts of the patriarchal creed, concerning the divine government, and the different orders and degrees that exist in the world of spirits. I must again refer to the Introductory Dissertation, Part V. The same doctrine runs through the whole of the Alcoran: thus, ch. ix. "Be not grieved, for God is with us. And God sent down his security upon him, and strengthened him with *armies of angels* whom ye saw not." So again sur. xiii.

speaking of man generally: "Each of them hath angels mutually succeeding each other, before him and behind him they watch him by the command of God. Verily, God will not change his grace which is in man, until they change the disposition which is in their souls by sin. When God wills evil on a people, there shall be none to avert it; neither shall they have any protection besides him."

It is a doctrine common to all ages, and almost to all countries; and certainly not, as suspected by Dr. Horsley, a mere Greek fiction, grafted upon the Christian system in the first ages of the church; and unsupported by the revealed religion, either of the Jews or Christians. The following verses of Voltaire give a correct view of the subject, as constituting a part of the general creed of mankind, derived from patriarchal tradition:

"Devant lui sont ces dieux, ces brûlans séraphins,

A qui de l'univers il commet les destins,
Il parle, et de la terre ils vont changer la face;
Des puissances du siècle ils retranchent la race."

It may be objected, 1. That, it cannot be said of *every man* who is sick, "surely" there is over him an angel, to be his intercessor, and the means of his restoration to health: the term rendered by Mr. G. surely, should only have implied *supposition*, or *admission* at most; but not *certainty*. 2. That the term *angel*, is thought by some to be an interpretation or explanation, only, and is marked as an interpolation by the MS. Oxon. Laud. A. 262, as Scott observes. 3. That the *memitz* is a *go-between*, a *deputy-speaker*; he speaks on both sides, to each party respectively, supposing them strangers, &c. as in the instance of Joseph, Gen. xlvi. 23. 4. That the "one of a thousand" usually implies the *first* of the series; but the *first* of the thousand, cannot possibly be supposed to be attendant on *every man* who has brought sickness on himself, by his inattention to the divine monitions, and his duty. This passage, then, is not conclusive as to the celestial rank of a *thousand* selected angels.

We recommend to Mr. G.'s enquiry whether the parallel passage to this is not James v. 14. where the sick is to be visited by the elders—to be prayed with—to be anointed—to be saved by prayer—to be raised up—and his sins forgiven. The process, with its termination, seems to be exactly this described in Job, without its poetry.

The famous passage of the "Redeemer living," will be the subject of our future remarks. The close of our author's observations on it are curious, and general as to their purpose.

It seems evident that the whole expectation of a future state was grounded upon a resurrection of the body; and that the doctrine of a separate existence of the soul—which, in conjunction with that of a corporal resurrection, runs, in my judgment, so plainly through the entire texture of the Christian scripture—is no where supported by the speakers; and, from various passages, appears rather to have been disbelieved.

It is curious, therefore, to remark the different ground of argument assumed in favour of a future state in the present poem,—and hence, perhaps, by the patriarchal times generally,—and that assumed by the philosophers of Greece and Rome, who assented to the same doctrine; the former appealing alone to a resurrection of the body, and appearing to have no idea of a distinct immortality of the soul; and the latter appealing alone to a distinct immortality of the soul, and appearing to have no idea of a resurrection of the body. It remained for that dispensation which has "brought LIFE and IMMORTALITY to light,"—the resurrection of the body, and the real nature of the soul,—to reconcile discrepancy, and give to each round of argument its proper force.

Mr. G. adds in a note,

There can be little doubt that the Greeks and Romans derived their doctrine of a future existence (as dependent upon the soul alone) from the gymnosophists of India, and that it was imported into Europe by Pythagoras, perhaps by Orpheus, along with the other tenets derived from the same source: and it is singular to observe the same doctrine existing in the same quarter, under the same modification (and only under that modification), even to the present hour: the subsequent life of the soul being allowed, but that of the body being distinctly and perpetually opposed. Thus, in the Yajur Ved, Sir W. Jones's Works, Vol. VI. *Extracts from the Vedas.*

"Since the tree, when felled, springs again still fresher from the root, from what root springs mortal man when felled by the hand of death?

"Say not he springs from seed: seed surely comes from the living. A tree, no doubt, rises from seed, and after death has a visible renewal.

"But a tree which they have plucked up by the root flourishes individually no more. From what root, then, springs mortal man, when felled by the hand of death?

"Say not he was born before: he is

born: who can make him spring again to birth?"

S., in another passage of the same Ved:

"Let my soul return to the immortal spirit of God; and then let my body, which ends in ashes, return to dust."

It is equally singular, that in Arabia the doctrine of a future being still exists; and perhaps only exists, as in the poem before us, under the opposite modification, of the resurrection of the *body*. To this doctrine the Alcoran is perpetually appealing: but we meet with no distinct notice of a separate existence of the soul; and hence the point is controverted by different sects and scholars, and in a great variety of ways explained and denied.

From these specimens our readers will perceive that Mr. G. has taken pains with his performance, and has had recourse to illustrations from whatever quarter obtainable, with very commendable industry. If he has in some places suffered his poetic fire to dazzle his judgment, and mislead him from the exact sense of his author, to that very fire we are indebted for considerable improvements in the expressions adopted in other passages, and for a general vigour of language that does honour to his pen as a writer, and not seldom to his decision as a critic.

It is proper to add, that our author in proof that Moses was the writer of the book of Job, forms a number of comparisons into a series, and founders upon them very strong conclusions. He might, by recalling the period of Moses's residence in Arabia, have still further finished his argument. It nevertheless, deserves notice that in no writings of the Man of God—they must be subsequent, of course—do we find any thing like the number of Arabisms as in Job. Did Moses become a purer writer of Hebrew after his return to his people? or did he pay so much regard to the dialect spoken by Job, and to the facts of the case, as to adopt expressions such as he found in use among the household and people of Jethro, his father in law, and of the Uzites from whom he received the story? The Jewish tales about Jethro describe him as a man of piety: he would be desirous of obtaining all possible particulars of a transaction so remarkable; and of ensuring their transmission to posterity: shall we say, by the pen of his learned son-in-law?

We shall resume the consideration of this work, particularly as to parts of it, in another article.

A Narrative of the Campaigns of the Loyal Lusitanian Legion, under Brig. Gen. Sir Robert Wilson, &c. 8vo. Pp. 354. Egerton, London : 1812.

IT is no part of our duty to determine whether superior powers have inadequately rewarded the services of the Loyal Lusitanian Legion ; and, in fact, were we so inclined, we have not the answer of the opposite party, by which to guide our judgment. But we perceive, that a strong sense of neglect has influenced the mind of Lieut. Col. Mayne, on the behalf of his corps, to afford this opportunity of perusing an interesting Military Episode of the War on the Peninsula. Officers in general are called to other duties than to that of writing memoirs of the actions of their regiments, nevertheless, there are few campaigns so restless as not to allow within short interval opportunities for recollection, and completing a Journal. Nothing is so interesting in after life : nothing is equally grateful to friends who are favoured with the perusal of such documents : nothing is more acceptable to Historians, intent on correctly transmitting to posterity the events of their own times, with illustrations of those events by their causes ; and nothing more effectually confutes the prevarications of the enemy whose perversions of truth are notorious. And we may appeal for further proof of the occasional importance of such documents to the volume before us, in which the History of the Corps is stated in vindication of its claims to renown and remuneration. We shall consider it, however, as a simple narrative.

In September 1808, a few British officers, Sir Robert Wilson at their head, landed at Oporto, where they raised three battalions of light infantry, some cavalry, and a brigade of artillery, with four six pounders and two howitzers ; the entire about 2,000 men. The first division marched from Oporto, Dec. 14, 1808. The second remained to be brought forward afterwards, and here began the misfortunes of the corps : it never fully mustered its strength. Shortly after, Sir John Moore's retreat seemed to leave Buonaparte in possession of the entire Peninsula. There was indeed, a small British

army at Lisbon ; but that was preparing to embark. Happily for the cause of liberty and Spain, with its co-adjutor Portugal, Buonaparte was called off to meet Austria in the field : his army was weakened, the spirit of the people was roused, and King Joseph found himself a crowned head without an obedient body. That part of the French force which had been detached toward Oporto, was beaten by the Natives of the mountains it had to pass through ; the Legion followed this success, and held in check other French armies, though hard pressed, till Soult was obliged to retire by Lord Wellington (then Sir Arthur Wellesley) when the Legion acted somewhat like a Guerilla party, in alarming and perplexing the enemy which it had not power to subdue. At the battle of Talavera, as well as before and after, a false report of the number of the legion kept aloof from the French Grand army, no less than 10,000 men. After a variety of toils and adventures this body was amalgamated with the Portuguese forces, and placed under the command of Marshal Beresford ; an officer whom the author has not studied to compliment. Prefixed to the History is a general account of Portugal, which contains information, that is occasionally continued to advantage in the Notes : they describe towns, &c. we doubt not from ocular inspection. Annexed are valuable documents, public and private, relating to various actions in which the Legion was concerned ; with other desirable information.

A few extracts from this work will close our Report on it. We hope that similar details of the conduct of our own troops, and of those of our allies may meet the public eye in due time : they have our best wishes for that purpose.

It will be remembered that the Legion quitted Oporto for Lamego, in December 1808, the state of the roads at that period is described by our author in lively terms. His account furnishes a striking picture of the climate and country.

The rain poured on us in torrents, continuing for several days without intermission ; but, as it was conceived the affairs at that period would not permit us to delay our march, we were obliged to proceed, notwithstanding the floods. The roads we passed, were deemed nearly impracticable ; and to many who may be unacquainted with the

state of them in this country at certain periods of the year, it may appear extraordinary to state that we were actually *obliged to swim our horses*; and it was with the greatest exertion and difficulty we were enabled to bring forward our artillery, being obliged to take the beasts from the guns, and officers and men, hand in hand, pulled them through the waters, which in many places reached up to their shoulders; and as an example to junior ranks we remarked our leaders among the number. We at length arrived with considerable difficulty and inconvenience at Pinhel, a bishop's see, three leagues west of Almeida, and four of the Spanish frontier; here the corps halted for a few days to make the necessary arrangements for the commencement of active operations, as well as to *descansar* after their severe and fatiguing march from Oporto, which they bore with great patience and fortitude, and only seemed anxious to come in contact with the enemies of their country, manifesting such confidence in their officers, as gave us every reason to anticipate the subsequent bravery they displayed when opportunities offered.

The following is one of their neatest exploits.

We received intimation of the enemy's having made a requisition for money and horses, at the town of Ledesma, on the river Tormes, which was to have been ready on a certain day, to a considerable amount, under the severe penalties of the destruction of the place, and execution of the magistrates: we resolved, therefore, on preventing such an important supply from falling into the enemy's hands, if possible; and proceeded with a squadron of cavalry, and about one hundred select infantry,* whom we mounted on all sorts of mules and horses that could be procured, with the intention of suddenly falling on the enemy's escort, should it appear that our force nearly equalled theirs, or that circumstances afforded us any prospect of success, in attempting thus to preserve the property of our allies. We happened to arrive at Ledesma, quite unexpectedly; and there found the Junta in state ready for the reception of their rapacious and dreaded enemy, for the purpose of delivering up to them the treasure and cattle demanded. We immediately concluded, that the most effectual way of preventing the above booty from falling into the hands of the enemy, would be to have it removed out of their reach, by sending it to the Junta of Ciudad Rodrigo; it was consequently resigned to us, and we delivered it

over to the Junta of Rodrigo. We afterwards understood that we were scarce an hour gone, when the enemy entered in considerable force from Salamanca, and were most disagreeably surprised at their unexpected disappointment, not finding either the horses or money, which they had understood were ready for their acceptance, and were consequently most vehemently enraged. They would probably have wreaked their vengeance on the unfortunate and innocent inhabitants, had not the Junta shewn Sir Robert Wilson's receipt, specifying the number of horses and quantity of money he had received;—and for their own justification, they stated his demand having been seconded by a military force, in consequence of which they were induced to comply, being unable to act otherwise. This had the desired effect of saving them and the inhabitants from destruction; but to prevent any thing of the kind for the future, the French sent a garrison there, which was shortly afterwards alarmed by a detachment of the Legion under the command of Lieut.-Col. Grant, who attacked their advanced posts by night, and surprised them sitting round their fires in the woods, by falling on them suddenly, and killed or dispersed the whole; those who escaped fled into the town, and the enemy were induced to confine their garrison afterwards within the walls of the place.

By this kind of Guerilla warfare the Legion vexed considerable French armies commanded by no less than marshals. The *unnecessary* devastations committed by the French almost exceed belief: from what cause does this arise?—Not only did the Portuguese revenge themselves by irregular companies; but war against their invaders was maintained by individuals;—an instance deserves to be distinguished.

A peasant of amazing muscular strength, became so annoying to the enemy on the banks of the Zezere, that they offered a large reward for his head. This man was accustomed to penetrate the enemy's encampments. He killed upwards of 30 men with his own hands, and captured 50 horses and mules. He lived in a cave in the mountains, but brought his booty to the allied camp to be sold. He was a most determined brave looking fellow, and continued his predatory warfare as long as the enemy remained in his country.

A number of anecdotes are scattered in different parts of the work; we have seen most of them in the newspapers; but now shall consider them as authenticated by Col. M.'s introduction of them into a work to which he has affixed his name.

* The legion had been joined by a good many British soldiers, cavalry, and infantry, stragglers, sick, and prisoners, who escaped from Sir John Moore's army.

An Essay on Military Drawing. From the German of Schiener. 8vo. Pp. 65. Egerton, London: 1812.

A translation of a useful book; on a subject important not to engineers only, but to every officer and military man. That it is perfect, we do not say; and we cannot but blame the indifference of the author who acknowledges omissions, and apprizes the reader, "that the following pages are not presented as a complete translation of M. Scheinert's work."—Succinct rules for laying down "buildings, woods, rivers, &c." though not differing from those taught by the best masters, would have been an acceptable addition, to students for whose use the work is intended: a few pages might have comprised them. This tract, then, is a discourse on the best manner of representing *hills*, for military purposes; i.e. to enable a superior officer who has not seen the country to judge of its practicability, and fitness to answer his purposes, at the head of an army. The requisites to effect this, are

1st. That a drawing should express, clearly, the angles formed by the different surfaces with the horizon. For military purposes, it is sufficient to ascertain these angles from five to five degrees.

2dly. That the representations of these inclined surfaces should, as much as possible, resemble nature. To accomplish this,

(a) Each surface must appear more or less light according to its inclination.

(b) It must also retain the same light as long as it retains the same inclination.

(c) The direction of the strokes, by which the inclined surfaces are represented, must follow the line which would be described by the descent of a heavy body down those surfaces.

3dly. This mode of representation must be such as might be adopted with ease and accuracy in the field.

4thly. It must be such as can be easily learned and quickly executed.

5thly. That the beginner will be almost as serviceable as the experienced draftsman; and

6thly. That both will be able to copy hills from a plan with as much accuracy as the other objects it contains.

Our old methods of drawing had none of the above-mentioned requisites, or, if they had, only in a very imperfect degree.

The military draughtsman considers the earth as a plane, and himself as looking perpendicularly down on it, from all parts, in his progress. His object is to

mark the forms and the steepness of *rises*, not on the spherical projection of a geographer; but rather on Mercator's projection, though in a smaller compass. He is to instruct the eye of a soldier how far the declivities of rising grounds admit of being manoeuvred on, the direction of their slope, their heights, and what objects they command. It is unnecessary to mark this nearer than 5° of inclination; and indeed, though we advise all possible correctness in theory, yet we believe that in practice, commanders will (as they often must) be content with less accurate approximations. To our numerous officers of volunteers, &c. the following table, or its principles, should be familiar.

1. *Gradations admitting of Manoeuvres.*

	5°	10°	15°
INFANTRY	INFANTRY.	INFANTRY.	INFANTRY.
may move with its close move order, and movements become down hill, the more difficult, most effectual fire and charge.	cannot move any considerable distance with order; their fire up hill without effect.	cannot move any considerable distance with order; their fire up hill without effect.	may still trot up, and walk down hill.
CAVALRY	CAVALRY	CAVALRY	CAVALRY.
may also move can only canter with order, and down hill; the has, up hill, its charge only possible effectual up hill.	may also move can only canter with order, and down hill; the has, up hill, its charge only possible effectual up hill.	may also move can only canter with order, and down hill; the has, up hill, its charge only possible effectual up hill.	may still trot up, and walk down hill.
ARTILLERY	ARTILLERY.	ARTILLERY.	ARTILLERY.
has a more effectual fire down hill, its effectual fire than up hill.	moves with difficulty, its effectual and constant fire ceases.	moves with great difficulty; its fire totally ceases.	moves with great difficulty; its fire totally ceases.

2. *Gradations which may be ascended and descended singly.*

	20°	25°	30°
INFANTRY.	INFANTRY.	INFANTRY.	INFANTRY.
cannot move in Light Infantry order, and can as before, only fire singly with effect.	Chasseurs and Riflemen, as Light Infantry before.	Chasseurs and Riflemen, as Light Infantry before.	Chasseurs and Riflemen, as Light Infantry before.
CAVALRY	CAVALRY.	CAVALRY.	CAVALRY.
may still ascend Light Cavalry Hussars may as at a walk, and may ascend one end as above, descend without by one oblique but with great order, and thatly, and descend difficulty, and only obliquely.	Cavalry Hussars may as at a walk, and may ascend one end as above, descend without by one oblique but with great order, and thatly, and descend difficulty, and only obliquely.	Cavalry Hussars may as at a walk, and may ascend one end as above, descend without by one oblique but with great order, and thatly, and descend difficulty, and only obliquely.	Cavalry Hussars may as at a walk, and may ascend one end as above, descend without by one oblique but with great order, and thatly, and descend difficulty, and only obliquely.

3. *Gradations which may be climbed up.*

	35°	40°	45°
Chasseurs and Riflemen may ascend with difficulty one by one, and ascend with the help of the hands.	Chasseurs and Riflemen, with baggage, ascend with the help of the hands.	Chasseurs and Riflemen accustomed to hilly country, may ascend as above, with danger of falling.	

These data may be implicitly relied on, though they may appear incorrect to those who have never actually measured inclinations. We have *heard*, indeed, that, in the campaigns of the Rhine, the French were in the habit of mounting hills of 70° or 80° ; but the fact is, that, during those campaigns, nobody ever thought of actually measuring the inclinations.

It is for want of reducing their boastings to actual measurement, that so many French falsities have passed unexposed. Facts rarely justify their assertions. The art of expressing these differences of inclination on a map, is what engages the author's attention. His rules are good ; and his examples are applicable. They have long been understood and practised by judicious engravers of maps ; but they have not been better, if so well, adapted to the purposes of the younger class of students in military affairs. It is justly observed by our author, that we cannot suppose all military draughtsmen to possess natural genius ; preceps and laws are therefore necessary as guides. We commend his intention and his treatise ; while at the same time we advise the further cultivation of talent, and instruction in the principles of art, including perspective and *chiara oscura* ; to neither of which this author is in our judgment, sufficiently friendly.

A Sermon on the Sanctification of the Lord's Day. By the Rev. James Rudge, A. B., Curate and Lecturer of Limehouse. Price 1s. Rivingtons, London : 1812.

It is impossible to deny that the observation of the Lord's Day, is of vital importance to the interests of religion, among us. It is a *public* institution, issuing in *private* consideration ; for there is every reason to suppose that were not many persons constrained by a sense of decorum to a state of quiet and leisure, they would never have an hour they could call their own ; but would, without intermission, spend the whole of their days, and every hour of the day, in the cares, the labours and the turmoils of secular employments. Self possession is not to be expected amidst the bustle of life ; yet, without it, what except drudgery are the objects of human pursuit ? In fact, is it not, disguised in another

form, the object of our wishes ? — " After I have realized *enough* ! I will retire ; and then I will enjoy myself." It were wiser to secure a little of this, as we pass on ; and who that knows true pleasure, if asked, on what day he most enjoys himself, would hesitate a moment in his answer ? The sun shines, the gentle gale blows, with greater delight to those prepared to receive it on this day, than on any other : they find, most surely, that " the Sabbath was made for man."

There is much truth in this sermon ; but whether it was *faithfully* calculated for the meridian of Limehouse, is more than we venture to assert. Mr. Rudge, very justly stigmatizes the higher ranks at the west end of the town, and far be it from us to undertake their defence : but, could he not have found at the east end of the metropolis, sinners to whom he might have pointed the prophet's admonition, " Thou art the man ? " We fear that his auditory would warmly join in blaming *their betters*, without reforming themselves ; while those whom the pious preacher reprobates, attach little importance to the judgment of the lecturer of Limehouse, and his congregation, on them and their pursuits. Who *their betters* are, may be gathered from the following note :

When the higher ranks began to trespass on that only rest, which the institution of the Sabbath was ordained to impose, by travelling on the Lord's Day, by going on needless journeys, and by entering into vain amusements ; by giving parties of pleasure, and by frequenting places of fashionable resort, than which nothing can be more inimical to those quiet feelings of the soul, and that delightful soberness of thought and reflection, which are so necessary to be cherished on the Sabbath, those, who were in inferior situations in life, soon followed their example, and were alike guilty of turning away their feet from the Sabbath—of calling it no longer their delight, nor of making it any longer holy and honourable.

The manner in which the Lord's Day is passed in the metropolis and its neighbourhood, must excite the most painful feelings in the religious breast. Every place of fashionable resort is crowded :—the Park and Kensington gardens are absolutely crammed with people on the Sabbath ; and this too at a time when the doors of the Sanctuary are open, and the sublime and beautiful service of our church is being read. The consequence is, that the house of God is forsaken, and the

afternoon duty of the church is unattended. The latter indeed has long since ceased to be regarded by the *better sort*. Of such, it was once observed, by as good and as virtuous a man as ever adorned the Christian fellowship, "that the *better sort* of people never went to church in an afternoon." I need not remark the sense in which this was spoken, nor by whom the *better sort* was meant. [Mr. R. means to say, "nor who was meant by the term *better sort*."]

As a cure, or at least, a corrective, the reverend author recommends *example*: so do we; but we think he removes to a distance that we are afraid to calculate, all hope of amendment, when he adds,

But indeed, if any substantial good and any practical benefit be wrought, they must first be wrought by the *shining examples, and consistent lives of the GREAT.*

.....

We have been struck with the evils of a sea-port town as described by Mr. Patrick, in his "Sermon preached at Trinity Church, Hull, for the benefit of the Vicar's School" in that town. We shall make a few extracts from it, because it conveys observations made by the preacher on local circumstances; and in vigorous terms excites to correction of some of them, by a patronage of the school under consideration. Mr. P. quotes one institution, "the dissolved spinning schools," as extremely unfortunate: we exceedingly regret the failure.

By this system of charity, the arts of domestic weaving would be introduced, it was asserted, into every family; the excellent habits of the past century would be revived; the name of *spinster* and of maid-servant would be synonymous.—Schools were formed, mistresses were engaged, a crowd of idle girls aged fourteen, or even sixteen years, were hurried into these seminaries. What public effects ensued? Attired in neat dresses, and raised above their equals in society, their proverbial vanity increased, their imagination was inflamed, their *private* conversations and their secret habits denoted the confirmed harlot, and they issued from the school into life prepared for dissipation.—One lady informed me, that after a subscription of six or seven years, and after an education of thirteen girls, beyond the thirteenth year of their age, twelve of them became the victims of extraordinary profligacy.

A warning voice, this, to other institutions!—to enforce caution, and pru-

dence; not to terrify and congeal *re-*charity.

The following representations are more especially descriptive of the state of Hull; but may not something similar be said of other sea-ports, that of the metropolis included?

The proportion of the poor to the rich is found to be larger in our commercial towns than in the cities in the interior of the island. The peasant, the broken farmer, and the disappointed manufacturer, crowd hither for employment or wages. York, Beverley, and a hundred adjacent towns and villages depopulate, while our suburbs swell into a considerable magnitude, and our population exceeds forty thousand souls. Now as the averaged calculation of Colquhoun, that one-ninth of the British population die without any learning, is probably correct, four thousand of our townsmen die in thirty-three years who have not learned to write or even to read the Scriptures. A short inference may be drawn from these crowds of poor ignorants; that Hull requires an increase not only of churches, but of schools. If these forty thousand moral agents must work out their salvation, or be cast "into penal fire," are two hundred schools established in this place, in which they may *learn* the duties of morality and religion?—But I spare you.—The poor appear here also in the same masses, as they are seen in the manufacturing towns. Fifty men are attached to one ship-builder, sixty sailors to one ship-master, or one hundred labourers to one employer in a sugar work, a dock, or a ropery. This wonderful contrast between the paucity of the rich, and the population of the poorer rank, is openly displayed in our age. While former writers indulged conjecture, we are supported by demonstration and by facts. To prove the disparity of number between the rich and the poor, we may alledge the circumstance that half a million of British subjects have paid the tax upon income, though the total population of the two British islands reached from eighteen to nineteen millions; we may appeal to the few payable or taxable houses in each parish, compared with the list of those houses for which the proprietor pays the tax? we may recollect the few grand streets, the frequency of narrow lanes, and the long line of wretched habitations. We may estimate the vast numbers of the poor, from these local hints.

.....

The necessary effect which these crowds of wretched families produce, is that they occupy whole streets, that they fill large suburbs, that gardens, fields, estates, are now covered with huts, of which not one contributes to the parochial rate: they are a no-

vel species of villages of paupers: not one decorous person resides in the vicinity, whose manners and conduct might teach them not only reverence and respect for the higher orders, but regularity of life and the beauty of virtue. I must deplore the fact that our modern architects have relinquished that excellent system and plan, which the last generation of merchants pursued in the construction of streets; a plan, by which the houses of the rich and the poor were amicably mingled in the same square and the same lane; a plan, which produced excellent effects. But the modish separation of ranks has brought a train of evil consequences. For hence the adulterers and adulteresses assemble themselves by troops along all the suburbs in the houses of harlots; the song of the drunkard resounds in these forlorn lanes through the day, and through the night; here robberies and burglaries are planned, and hence our felons and our convicts issue to plunder.

It appears from our parochial registers, that from the year 1650 to 1750, not one inhabitant in an hundred was taught to write; in the present year half of our citizens can write, and two-thirds can read.

The author addresses the several classes of which his auditory, it might be presumed, was composed: we trust, to good purpose. The arguments are *ad homines* in a better sense than usual. We select one or two, which the times have far from effaced.

It is wise to remember the uncertainty of health and of life; it is prudent to lay up something against the eternity which is to follow. Remember the accidents of life, consider the misfortunes, to which you are exposed, and provide against the vicissitude of all mortal things. Consider the kingdoms on kingdoms which the destroyer has wasted in this war. As merchants, you are flushed with hope, and impatient for new enterprises, and additional speculations;—may no accident cross your honest purpose! may no calamity destroy your substance! may no diseases “smite your first born!” but one event is inevitably certain, whether it will happen to-day or to-morrow, we know not; death, death will destroy your usefulness, and snatch you from the power of doing good. O save something from the common wreck, secure some consolation against the day of trouble, the day perhaps of national humiliation; for a hundred nations lie prostrate before our enemy. Let not your possessions utterly perish with you, but carry as much of them as you can into eternity. Consecrate a small remnant to virtue, before it takes wings and flies away, before “commerce spread her sails on other shores,” perhaps to the New

World. Throw some tribute into the treasury of God. If you cannot spare a talent, give a mite; if you cannot extirpate misery from all the world, in a populous town, at least, endeavour to stop its ravages among the families of the forlorn and the needy.

O ye, who know the miseries of life only in a description, in a novel, or in a tragedy; you, who are satiated with the good things of this world, and are ranging from object to object, from the metropolis to a bath, from a tour to a visit, for some new entertainment, come, try the novelty of visiting our charitable schools, and of contributing to their wants; try, if amidst all your pleasures you ever found one so transporting to the heart, so grateful to the sense, so delicious to the soul, as benevolence. There is in nature no sound so sweet, as the voice of sorrow turned to gladness, no sight so noble, as a train of infants redeemed from mental death. To whom beside shall I address myself? The voice of nature directs me to you, ye delicate and charitable sex, as fortunately inspired with all the softest passions, and amably turned to all the tenderest offices. Distress naturally flies to you for protection, and generally finds in you its warmest friends; and when it is recommended by simplicity and youth, it can never fail of your pity. Remember that compassion is the ornament of innocence, for it was the robe in which your Saviour was arrayed; would you procure sincere applause and inviolable esteem, let charity and goodness grace all your actions.

Ye sesaring persons, who have made a considerable progress, and have met with a prosperous passage in life, remember those who are starting on the dangerous voyage, without friends, without experience, without education; the world, indeed, is all before them, but they have no place of rest in it; they have indeed parents, but they can give them nothing but their tears: they have relations, but who ever knocked at the door of poverty? Who ever paid his court to misfortune? Who ever claimed an acquaintance with the “poor desitute?”

Cicero de Senectute et de Amicitia, from the Text of Ernesti, &c. with an Appendix, &c. By E. H. Barker, of Trinity College, Cambridge. Sm. 8vo. Pp. 218. Longman and Co. London: 1811.

A neat and pleasing edition of the works announced in the title page. The editor displays the knowledge of a scholar, with the diligent research of a man habituated to enquire, and delighted with the occupation of enquiry. In confessing our obligation for the notes, particularly; we do but acknowledge their

real value. To those of Ernesti, Mr. B. has annexed additional illustrations from other authors.

The true construction of an ancient language, as the Latin, is, no doubt, an important and indispensable part of learning; but it is also laborious, yet when cleared and determined by means of incidental occurrences, and appeals to acknowledged facts, the ruggedness of the way is greatly abated, and in some instances it is strewed over with flowers. We shall adduce a few specimens from the notes, in support of this observation.

Est in manibus laudatio. Plutarch informs us in his *Life of Publicola*, that this virtuous statesman pronounced an eulogy over his fallen colleague Brutus at the funeral, and adds: the "Romans were so charmed with the idea, that afterwards all the great and illustrious men among them, upon their decease, had their eulogy from persons of distinction: this funeral oration was more ancient than any among the Greeks; unless we allow, what Anaximenes, the orator, relates, that Solo was the author of this custom. We are told that, when the women contributed their golden ornaments to complete the sum demanded by the Gauls, the Roman Senate granted to them the privilege of having funeral harangues pronounced over them: Plutarch says in his *Life of Cesar*: "It had long been the custom in Rome for the aged women to have funeral panegyries, but not the young: Cesar first broke through it by pronouncing one over his own wife, who died at an early age." Gamaliel Ben Pedahzur says in his book of the *Jewish Religion, Ceremonies, and Prayers*, (p. 13), that a sort of sermon is preached at the grave in the praise of the deceased, and sometimes the title of *Rabbi* is given to the deceased by the Priest, who is always present, and who generally speaks in praise, and gives honors and titles to the dead, according to the pay, which he expects from the surviving relations. The very learned Calmet, in his *Dissertation on the Funerals of the Hebrews* (in Tindal's Translation, p. 259), says, "Then the body is laid on the ground, and if the deceased was famous upon any account, one of the company made his *Funeral Oration*; a very ancient custom, mentioned in the Scriptures, and by ecclesiastical and profane writers: among the Egyptians, the deceased King had a judgment passed upon him before he was buried: every one had the privilege of praising, or blaming, what good, or ill they had remarked during his reign: private persons were treated in the same manner: the custom of making funeral orations is of an ancient standing in the Christian Church: there

are several recorded in the Scriptures, as those of Saul and Jonathan, of Abner, of Josiah, and of Judas Maccabeus." In Ogilby's *Chinese Embassies*, p. 184, we are told: "In the hall [of a deceased Nobleman] stand two trumpeters, and at the great gate of the Court within two drummers: over the gate hangs upon a board, a long scroll of paper even to the ground, wherein is to be read, who it is that is deceased, and what he had done in his life-time for the service and benefit of his country." If I am not mistaken, I have somewhere read that the Chinese also pronounce funeral harangues over their dead. We are told in Ogilby's *Japan*, p. 67,) that the Priests, "among their other functions, take especial care in ordering of obits and noblemen's funerals, not only as churchmen, but in the manner of heralds, setting them forth with all order and ceremony; and going before the hearse singing new elegies in honour of the deceased."

On another occasion, Mr. B. though equally instructive critically, is less decisive: he says,

Cum saepe multa, tum memini, domi in hemicyclo sedentem, ut solebat, cum et ego essem una, et pauci admodum familiares, in eum sermonem, illum incidere, qui tum sere omnibus erat in ore.

Melmoth, and Ainsworth interpret the word *hemicyclo* by *semicircular apartment*: Mr. Bell, of Antermony, indeed, says (vol. 1, p. 102) in his description of a Persian Hall of Audience: "The farther end of the hall is a semicircle: here sat the shah upon a sofa, raised about a foot from the floor, which was elevated four steps above the rest of the hall."

Gesner, in his *Thesaurus*, as Mr. B. proceeds to observe, understands this word of the *augural seat*. Mr. B. adds quotations from Ernesti, and many others. But the subject is capable of yet further illustration. Among the pictures representing the Muses, recovered from Herculanum, Clio, and Urania, are seated in chairs, with semi-circular backs to them; somewhat resembling our drawing-room chairs; and these are the more instructive, because it has been thought, that a semi-circular *table* suited to a semi-circular room, was the *hemicycle* of this passage. Whereas, it should appear that they were much more familiar things, and articles rather of light furniture. It is remarkable, moreover, that there is an allusion to a seat of this form among the Asiatics, in Solomon's Song, chap. i. 11. "While the king reclineth

in his circle, my spikenard sendeth forth its fragrance." Whether such a seat accommodated more than one person, is uncertain; but there seems to be no reason why it might not answer all the purposes of the modern sofa; and this, possibly, is the nearest to a general idea of it: though it might be varied as occasion and service required.

The learned Annotator on the *Herculaneum* pictures, alludes to the *lecticula lucubratoria* (which we may translate "study chairs," says Causaubon) of Augustus; but it should seem that they might be as much *dining-room* chairs, as study chairs. The words of Suetonius are, "Posticubam meridianum. . paullisper conquescebat, opposita ad oculos manu. A caena lucubratorium se in lecticulam recepiebat. . . . In lectum inde transgressus," &c. The authority of these Muses, however, proves that these chairs with semi-circular backs, were seats of learning; and as such we recommend them to the adoption of all studious votaries of the said Muses.

There are other articles in this small, but pleasing, volume which we have perused with pleasure; in particular a comparison of words in the Welsh language with others in the Latin. This may probably amuse our readers at a future opportunity. Much yet remains to be done in the study of languages by comparison, and *clear* (not fanciful) proofs of the relationship of distant dialects.

Sangora; a legendary Tale. 12mo. For the Author 1812.

FROM the title we expected to find this tale an African, or West Indian, or possibly, an American romance; but on detecting the author's attempt to palm it upon us for the appellation of a British heroine, our wonted good humour failed us, and we read it, to be sure, but without delight, or satisfaction. The date of the tale, as intended by the writer, is that of King Richard, and the Holy War. A few old words, affectingly inserted here, and there, impart no air of antiquity to it; nor are the manners of the time correctly pourtrayed. If black letter lore can be useful to any body, it might be to writers who wish to derive a charm rather from verbal peculiarities, and antique phrases, than from general nature and the sympathies of humanity:

A Cursory Inquiry into the Expediency of Repealing the Annuity Act, and Raising the legal Rate of Interest; by Edward Bortenshaw Sugden, Esq. 8vo. p.p. 60, Price 2s. 6d. London, Murray.

THIS subject is of greater importance than appears at first sight. The change of opinion in our Courts of Law on the subject of Annuities, with their contradictory determinations is a striking instance of the difficulty of establishing regulations for a complex state of society, for property ever fluctuating, and necessities varying almost with every wind. Possession of money is the next greatest plague in the world to the want of it—Those who have it wish to make a profit of it, but they dread insufficient securities, the rocks and quicksands of risk; this increases their anxiety to cover contingencies; and then the market price of money is raised, to the vexation and oppression of the borrower. To do justice to both borrower and lender is not easy. The legislature attempted this, by Act 17, Geo. III. cap. 26, by which the sale of life Annuities was subjected to certain controls, intended to *check* the practice. It has failed, says Mr. Sugden; and evasions are more prevalent than ever. Usury triumphs, by the use of additional *screens*. Transactions of this description are loans at enormous and illegal interest. The pamphlet deserves consideration; the writer states powerful reasons for desiring a revision of the law. But many more interests are to be attended to than those included in his remarks. The effect of the interest of money on the body politic, as well as on the fortunes of individuals, is a very curious, but an extremely intricate subject.

In England, whenever the ordinary market rate exceeded the legal rate, the law has constantly been evaded. The rate of interest was first fixed in this country in 37th Hen. 8. the rate was 10 percent. In the 5th of Edward the 6th, it was rendered illegal to take any interest, but notwithstanding this law, the common rate of interest was at this time 14 per cent from which it may be inferred, that the act of Henry the 8th had not been honoured much in the observance.

Ten per cent was again allowed in the 13th of Elizabeth. The impolicy of a total prohibition of interest appears to have been deeply felt. It is recited in the act by which the statute of Henry the 8th was revived

that the act of Edward the 6th "hath not done so much good as was hoped it should, but rather the said vice of usury, and specially by way of sale of wares, and shifts of interest, hath much more exceedingly abounded, to the utter undoing of many gentlemen, merchants, occupiers, and others, and to the importable hurt of the commonwealth."

In the 21st of James the 1st, interest was reduced to 8 per cent. In the 12th of Charles the 2d, the rate was reduced to 6, and finally, in the 12th of Anne, to 5 per cent. at which it now stands, although, in happier times than these, it was in contemplation still further to reduce the rate.

Five per cent. as I shall attempt to show, has long ceased to be the ordinary market rate of interest, and the inevitable consequence has followed, that the law has been evaded.

Although it may startle some to hear it, yet instances are not wanting of money being raised by way of annuity, upon three lives, paying *ten* per cent. upon unincumbered fee simple estates, of great annual value. Great sums are given to agents for loans at 5 per cent. on the best securities; so that the borrower pays severely, although the lender is not benefited by it.

The allowance of a higher rate of interest by law, and consequently for the whole nation, would have an influence on all contracts, profits, and calculations, to an extent and magnitude from which we rather recoil, than chuse to contemplate

Stereogniometry; also, Leeway and Magnetic Sailing. By John Cole, Purser of H. M. Ship Aboukir. 8vo. Pp. 341. Price 14s. Lunn. London : 1812.

We think it our duty to record this work, as the production of a scientific man, whose intention it is to improve the art of navigation, &c. by communicating methods of simplifying some of its proceedings. For this purpose he proposes to use the trilateral solid angle instead of the spherical triangle; to retain the original plane angles, and to call the science by the name of *Stereogniometry*. This measurement of solid angles the author applies to Astronomy and to Dialing : he also calculates the fluxions of the several parts of trilateral solid angles. It is not possible for us to convey any notion of this book by extracts. The essays on Leeway

and Magnetic Sailing deserve attention from sea officers ; but they are shorter than the author designed ; and contain little that is new to us. They are inserted as we conjecture, to shew what Mr. Cole could do, if writing more at large. The subject is of great importance to all to whom vessels, containing much valuable property and many invaluable lives are committed: What is here written, however, must be considered as theoretical only, and not to be absolutely relied on, till brought to perfection by practice. Whatever improvements can be rendered popular among our sea-faring men, deserve the patronage of a nation which has such immense value, always floating on the water as Britain has: to augment its security, is a truly laudable application of skill and science ; and the object of the author is utility.

Metrical Effusions, or Verses on Various Occasions. 8vo. Baldwin, London, 1812.

The modesty of this writer possesses us in his favour: had he come forwards too boldly, and demanded—we might have been inclined to tell him, that we had seen more vigorous lines and smarter verses; but a gentleman who has "printed only a small impression," has by his candour disarmed criticism. We deem it impolity to praise only great poets: the art of Poetry, like all other arts, is brought forward by gradual improvements. After all, in this age of discernment, the number is but few which can afford

— in spite
Of Nature and their stars to write ;

for, if the public will not purchase their effusions, the cost of paper and print, if good, as fashion requires, will check their pens and their genius, effectually. Not every votary of the Muses has the good fortune of Walter Scott to enumerate, together with his works, the fortunes each has brought him:—for this £2,000, for that £3,000, *et seq.* We wish, however, that the writer before us, may meet with acceptance adequate to his wishes, restricted as he avows them; and to enable the public to decide on his merits we subjoin the following specimens of his verses.

PRINCE HOEL'S SONG,
FROM SOUTHEY'S MADOC.

I've harness'd thee my steed of grey ;
And thou shalt bear me to the walls,
Where, in dazzling splendour gay,
Bright the glittering sun-beam falls.

Dear to me those walls so white,
When I wake, and when I dream ;
Where, before my fair one's sight,
Floats the sea-mew on the stream.

How I love the storm-struck dwelling
Which the restless ocean laves !
On its walls, so proudly swelling,
Ever break the sounding waves.

There she dwells, the shapely maiden,
Fairer than the ocean spray ;
Lovelier than the charms display'd in
Flora's garden bed in May.

Still for her I ceaseless pine ;
See but her in crowded halls ;
When the sun's bright beams decline
Fancy flies to those dear walls.

I throughout the sleepless night
Think of her, 'till health is flown ;
Fled the visions of delight,
The flush of youth for ever gone.

Pale as ocean to the view
On a dreary sunless morn ;
Victim of a love too true,
Still for her I pine forlorn.

I pine for her ; yet heave a sigh
Of tender pity while I pine,
That she should view with scornful eye
A love so pure, so warm as mine.

HARMONY OF CREATION.

Who hath not heard with raptur'd ear
The lark's shrill matin, echoing clear,
While grove and meadow, far and near,
Resound with tuneful melody ?

How sweet, how full, the blackbird's note
Seems on the morning gale to float,
While many a warbler strains his throat
To aid the cheerful harmony !

When, at fierce noon, the sun rides high,
How sweet on river's brink to lie,
Safe shelter'd from a cloudless sky,
Some shady tree for canopy !

There listen to the murmuring stream,
Like one entranc'd in moody dream ;
Then mark on distant sail the beam
Of sun-shine glist'ning cheerfully.

And oh ! what tuneful notes resound,
What heavenly music all around,
When, reach'd his daily journey's bound,
Bright Phœbus sets resplendently !

Oft have I loiter'd on my way,
While choristers on every spray
Sang vespers to the closing day,
And vied in sweetest symphony !

Is there, whose sensual, grovelling mind,
By taste, by virtue unrefin'd ;
Can hear this melody combin'd,
And not enjoy such minstrelsy ?

In vain to him returning spring
Bids flow'rets blow, or songsters sing ;
Their charms no heartfelt raptures bring,
Nor wake to mental ecstasy.

Not so the man divinely taught ;
His soul, with nobler feelings fraught,
Ascends on wings of heavenly thought
To God, the source of Harmony.

In all the music of the grove,
He hears a song of joy and love,
Praising the name of Him above,
The one, eternal Deity !

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WORKS ANNOUNCED FOR PUBLICATION.

BIOGRAPHY.

The fourth edition of the *Remains of the late Rev. Richard Cecil* is in the press. It will be well printed, as a pocket volume, in foolscap 8vo. with a beautiful portrait by Caroline Watson, after Russell. The *View of Mr. Cecil's Character*, by the Editor, will be prefixed.

CLASSICAL LITERATURE.

A gentleman of the University of Oxford is preparing for the press a splendid edition of *Martyn's Eclogues of Virgil*, with thirty-seven coloured plates of botanical subjects.

COMMERCE.

A work of considerable importance to the commercial world is about to be published, entitled, "The Perpetual Balance, or Book-keeping " by Double Entry, upon an improved Principle, " exhibiting the general Balance progressively " and constantly in the Journal, without the aid " of the Ledger."

This work, which is the production of Mr. John Lambert, Author of *Travels in America*, &c. will remove the difficulties which at present attend the formation of the annual balance, and enable the mercantile man, daily to ascertain at one view, the whole state of his affairs.

EDUCATION.

M. Bouilly, author of *Contes à ma Fille*, will shortly publish *Conseils à ma Fille*, consisting of Tales, chiefly founded on facts; intended for the senior classes in schools. A translation of the work is preparing for the press.

FINE ARTS.

Boydell and Co. respectfully inform the Subscribers to Middiman's Views, and the Public, that No. 13, and last, containing five plates, with appropriate letter press, is ready for publication. This elegant work, which may now be considered as completed, consists of a collection of fifty-three select picturesque views of romantic and interesting scenery in Great-Britain and Wales, engraved by S. Middiman from pictures and drawings by the most eminent artists, with descriptions of each view in English and French. Size of each print 6*1*/₂ inches by 8 long, forming one handsome volume in 4to.

The second part of *A Collection of Picturesque Views and Scenery of Norway*, containing ten plates coloured from drawings made on the spot, &c. by John William Edy, is nearly ready for publication.

GEOGRAPHY.

Mr. Picquot will shortly publish a work on Geography; in which is included Ancient Geography, an addition much desired for school purposes.

HISTORY.

The Rev. T. Morrell, of St. Neot, will shortly publish, in an octavo volume, *Studies in History*, Part I, containing an abridged History of Greece, with moral and religious reflections. The subsequent parts to contain the History of Rome and of England on the same plan.

JURISPRUDENCE.

Mr. Dickinson, thirty years an acting magistrate for the counties of Nottingham and Lincoln, has in the press, a Practical Exposition of the Law relative to the Office and Duties of a Justice of the Peace, continued to the end of Trinity Term, 52 George III.

MATHEMATICS.

In the press a greatly enlarged and improved edition, being the fifth of Davis's *Familiar Treatise on Land Surveying*, by the Chain Cross and Offset Staffs only; to which is now first added, a Supplement, containing the methods by the Plane Table and Theodolite, and Directions for conducting Subterraneous Surveys, with a portrait, and new diagrams and plates, the whole adapted to the present system.

MEDICINE AND CHIRURGERY.

Mr. Johnson, surgeon in the royal navy, is printing, in an octavo volume, an *Essay on the Influence of Tropical Climates*, more particularly the climate of India, on European constitutions; the principal effects induced thereby, with the means of obviating and removing them.

MEDICINE.

The *Medical Extracts*, or *Philosophy of Medicine*, a popular work, on the science of medi-

cine, will appear early in January next; the sixth edition. The work was composed by the botanical Dr. Thornton.

MISCELLANIES.

A new edition of the *Life and Prophecies of Merlin* may soon be expected.

Mr. Lovell, Building Surveyor, Huntingdon, is preparing for the press, a *New System of Duodecimal Arithmetic*; every example worked at length, with tables for finding the value of any number of feet and inches, yards and feet, &c.

NATURAL PHILOSOPHY.

Dr. Pritchard, of Bristol, will shortly publish the first volume of *Researches into the History of the Human Kind, and the Nature of its Physical Diversities*.

Mr. Andrew Horn will immediately put to the press a short *Essay*, in which the Seat of Vision is determined; and, by the Discovery of a New Function in the Organ, a foundation laid for explaining its Mechanism and the various Phenomena on principles hitherto unattempted.

POLITICAL ECONOMY.

To be published by Subscription, *A History of the House of Commons of Great-Britain and Ireland, from the earliest Period to the present Time*; to which is added, a Political and Personal History, of all the Boroughs, Cinque Ports, Cities, and Counties in the United Kingdom, Containing their Ancient and Present State. The Constitution of the Britons. Witenam Gemote of the Saxons. Representative Parliament of the 4th William I. restored the 49th of Henry III. Boroughs partially restored, the 18th of Edward I. The Right of Suffrage limited the 8th of Henry VI. Boroughs discontinued and restored in every Reign, from Edward I, to James II. The City of Ely and Ninety-two Boroughs never restored. Incorporation of Wales into the Parliament of England, the 27th of Henry VIII. Equal Representation during the Commonwealth. Union with Scotland, ditto with Ireland. Local History of each Borough, Cinque Port, City, and County. Contradictory Rights of Election in each. Charters, Petitions complaining of undue Elections, with the Decisions upon each. Resolutions of Committees. Proprietors and Patrons of Boroughs. Venality and Corruption. Number of Votes in each Place, &c. List of Members called Poussineers, who were said to be influenced by M. Poussin, the French Agent, in the Reign of Charles II. List of Members who voted for making the Prince and Princess of Orange King and Queen of England. List of Members who voted for and against the Hanover Succession, &c. By J. H. B. Oldfield, &c. In Four handsome Volumes, 8vo, dedicated to Granville Sharp, Esq. Price to Subscribers £2. 8s. to be advanced on the Day of Publication to Non-subscribers.

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A work by the late Dr. Robertson, the celebrated historian, is in the press, on the Grounds of Protestantism; or the causes which contributed to the secession of our forefathers from the errors and corruption of the church of Rome.

Mr. Cumberland's Defence of the Christian Religion is about to be republished.

The Rev. S. Barrow will shortly publish, in a duodecimo volume, Sermons for Schools; containing one for every Sunday in the year, and for Christmas-day, &c. of length and on subjects adapted to young persons, selected and abridged from Horne, Blair, Gisborne, Porteus, &c. &c.

Dr. Hales' Letters to Dr. Troy, on the religious and political tenets of the Roman hierarchy, are reprinting.

WORKS PUBLISHED.

EDUCATION.

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PROPOSITA PHILANTHROPICA.

—*Homo sum :**Humanum nihil a me alienum puto.*

CHURCH MISSIONARY SOCIETY.

On Monday, the 12th instant, a special general meeting of the Society for Missions to Africa and the East was held at the New London Tavern, Cheapside, for the purpose of addressing and dismissing to their labours the Rev. Leopold Butscher, one of the Society's missionaries, on his return to Africa, accompanied by eight other persons, in order to strengthen and extend the Society's missions on the western coast of that continent. The President, the Right Hon. Lord Gambier, was in the chair; and there were present between three and four hundred ladies and gentlemen. The secretary, the Rev. Josiah Pratt, delivered the instructions of the committee to the missionary and his companions; and the Rev. Henry Budd, chairman of the committee of correspondence, addressed them on the subject of their duties and encouragement. Mr. Butscher, who has been six years in Africa, and has become thoroughly acquainted with the character of the natives and has gained the confidence of the chiefs, replied to these addresses in a spirit of simplicity and prudent but determined zeal, which greatly impressed the meeting. Two settlements have been formed on the Rio Pongas; and a third, named Gambier, after the noble president of the society, is about to be formed on the Rio Dembia.—Mr. Butscher takes out with him three laymen, who will contribute to the success of the mission, by conciliating the natives and advancing their civilization in the exercise among them of various useful arts.

The meeting was addressed by the secretary, the Rev. Henry Budd, the Rev. Daniel Wilson, the Rev. Dr. J. Pye Smith, and the Rev. J. W. Cunningham: and much interest was excited by the prospects opening before the society. Seven Lutheran ministers, five lay settlers, six English students, eight wives of missionaries and settlers, and about 120 African children, are dependent on the society. The income of the society having fallen short of its expenditure last year by the sum of £600, and being wholly inadequate to the exertions which the committee are now making, the noble president added liberally to his former ample contributions to the funds; and as many persons present have regretted that they were not distinctly invited at the meeting to follow his lordship's example, it is hoped that they, and others, will fulfill their kind intentions, by sending their contributions or subscriptions either to the Rev. Josiah Pratt, Doughty

Street; to the Deputy Secretary, Mr. Thomas Smith, 19, Little Moorfields; or to the Treasurer, Henry Thornton, Esq. M.P. Bartholomew Lane.

A "Plan of Church Missionary Associations" was distributed at the meeting, in which the committee point out the method and the advantage of associating in support of the society the inhabitants of large towns, of parishes, or the members of congregations, or a circle of private friends. The first association will be formed in a few weeks at Bristol, when sermons will be preached on the occasion by different clergymen from London and other parts. Other associations are in preparation in various parts of the kingdom; and all clergymen and others who are friendly to the designs of the society are requested by the committee to assist in rendering these associations as general and productive as possible.

STATE OF MIND OF THE JEWS IN POLAND
AND GERMANY.

From a Paper circulated by the London Society for promoting Christianity among the Jews. Their Office is No. 9, Church Street, Spitalfields.

The Rev. Mr. Nitschke writes, from Niesky, in Upper Lusatia, under date April 24, 1812.

"Having had much opportunity, from my youth up, to converse with Jews, and to know them thoroughly, and particularly in Poland, to which country I have undertaken four journeys, at different times, I will communicate to you a few of my observations on them.

"The Jews, in all the greater and smaller states of Germany, have, for some years, enjoyed equal rights with the other inhabitants, and a civil improvement has taken place among them. This is a memorable occurrence in these eventful times, and a real benefit for this people, so long despised and unjustly oppressed by christians; whereby their inbred hatred and prejudice against christianity has been in some degree diminished. Thus they have outwardly approached nearer to the christians; yet, by this means, the conversion of their hearts to our God and Saviour will not be effected. It may also be observed among the Jews in Germany, that they are more than formerly attentive to their moral improvement; but on the other hand, it is obvious that they shew a growing indifference to the positive precepts of their religion. Many of them are ignorant of the faith of their fathers, and shake off the yoke of the Mosaic law. They care only for the things of this life; have no

susceptibility for the saving truths of christianity, and are totally unconcerned for the salvation of their immortal souls. The Jews in Poland, on the contrary, still observe the traditions of their fathers strictly, and are Jews in every sense of the word. By human appearance, there might be less probability of gaining entrance among them with the doctrines of christianity, because they hate and persecute all who deviate from their faith. But here I may communicate the following authentic facts:—

“ Brother Niety, a merchant in Riga, in a letter dated March 5, 1811, writes thus:—

“ My son was last summer in the Crimea, and returned towards the end of autumn by way of Odessa. In Odessa he heard a report that many Jewish families emigrated through that town. During his journey through Poland he himself met many travelling Jews. He afterwards lodged in a town inhabited by Jews, and met there with a German Jew: he entered into conversation with him, and asked him, *to what country the emigrating Jewish families went?*—He replied, “ To Palestine, to settle in the country of their fathers, having a presentiment that the Messiah would now soon come. The rich of the nation, scattered in different parts of the world, made collections for the journey expences of the poor.”

“ There is among them a general desire to return to the land of their fathers. Many of them are probably impelled by need, as there is a stagnation of all trade here; but many are moved by the expectation of the coming of the Messiah in about eight years. The same persons from whom I accidentally heard this told me, on another occasion, that fifteen years hence probably no Jew would be left in this country. In the present times of confusion this memorable people, scattered in all the world, is little noticed; but if the above information is confirmed in process of time, and more generally, that impulse among them is certainly one of the remarkable signs of the times.”

“ In May and June 1811, I resolved to ascertain the foundation of these facts. In two towns which are inhabited by many Jews, I received from their leaders the following account:—“ That it was certainly true, that for two years *some hundred Jewish families had emigrated from Poland to Palestine.*” Enquiring into the purpose of their emigration, I was answered, that “ they hoped the promises of the prophets would now soon be accomplished, that the Lord would gather the people of Israel from all parts of the earth, where they were scattered, into the land of their fathers, and that they would there wait for the appearance of the Messiah; for after their Rabbis had often

been mistaken in fixing the time of his coming, they now were persuaded that he would come at length.” When I replied that they might again be mistaken, they said—“ No matter; if those who now go to Palestine should not live to see the coming of the Messiah, they, however, are gathered in the Holy Land with their fathers, and whenever the Messiah comes, they will be raised from their graves.” The places from whence these emigrations are most frequent, they said, were Brody in Volhynia and Wilna in Lithuania.

“ Another authentic fact is the following:—

“ About ten years ago, a particular party arose among the Jews in Poland, which has also many followers in some parts of Germany, and chiefly in Bohemia, and they even asserted that a branch of their association was already in Palestine. I have made personal acquaintance with a principal leader of this party, who believed in Jesus as the Saviour of the world, and sincerely revered him. He assured me that in a few years great changes would take place with the Jews, though appearances, as yet, were doubtful. Soon after I read in a newspaper, that a great dissension had arisen between the followers of this man and the other Jews, at Prague, which was carried to such a length that the magistrates had to interfere. These people were called *Schabacevi*, and many good and evil reports were spread regarding them. I heard, on my last journey in Poland, in 1811, that they had been expelled the synagogue, and excommunicated, for having forsaken the faith of their fathers; and as government desired that they should join an established religion, many of them had been baptized in the catholic church; but in some places there were still followers of this sect.—I think it very probable that the emigrants to Palestine belong to this party.”

“ In the middle of the last century, the Rev. Mr. Moeler, at Sandau, near Magdeburg, published the New Testament in Jewish German characters; but I do not know if any copies of it are still to be sold.

“ The sad events of the times, by which we have long suffered, and which seem to become more and more alarming, have impoverished all ranks so much, that few have it in their power to do much for the spread of the kingdom of God, particularly in an undertaking in which, humanly speaking, there is little prospect of success. It is with difficulty that the existing institutions for the salvation of our fellow-men are upheld, and we cannot think of attempting new enterprises.”

.....
Extract from a letter of Dr. Knapp, of Halle.

"The first beginning of sending protestant missionaries among the heathen was made in Halle, early in the 18th century, and also preachers of the Gospel among Jews and Mahometans first proceeded from hence. A. H. Franke sent the first missionaries to India, and one of his pupils, afterwards professor of divinity at this university, Dr. Henry Callenberg, was excited, in 1727, about the time of Franke's death, to establish "the Jewish, or Callenberg Institution" for the benefit of the Jews and Mahometans. The first itinerant preacher was by him sent, in 1730. One of the most active and eminent of his coadjutors was M. Stephen Schulz, who was many years in the East, and afterwards, when minister of the Gospel here in Halle, published an account of his travels. The purpose of this institution was exclusively the propagation of the knowledge of vital christianity among Jews and Mahometans. *It did not interfere with the reception of converts into christian churches, but awakened Jews were directed for further instruction to regular ministers.* Nor could the mode of proceeding be otherwise, owing to the protestant ecclesiastical establishment in Germany and elsewhere. Therefore the number of those who were really converted by means of this institution cannot be named; but it is a certain fact, that much good seed was thereby sown, which has produced rich fruit in several places in the East and West.

"The Greek church also derived benefit from this institution, for the missionaries, travelling among the Greek christians, conveyed to them the New Testament in the modern Greek language edited by A. H. Franke, and several separate books of the New Testament and other religious tracts, printed in the same language by that institution. During Callenberg's life the reports of his missionaries were published from year to year, which are interesting, by showing their method, and may enable present labourers in the same cause to imitate what experience has proved to be excellent, and to avoid defects, which they often frankly acknowledge. He also promoted publications of a great number of greater and smaller writings in the Rabbinic and Jewish German dialect, as also in the Arabic, many of which are much to the purpose; besides he printed Arabic and Hebrew translations of several books of the New Testament, as the Gospel according to St. Luke, the Epistles to the Hebrews, Romans, &c. These he partly translated himself, partly caused the work to be done by learned converts from the Jews under his inspection, and they are much pre-

ferable to Hutter's translation, partly also furnished with annotations for Jews. When Callenberg died, in 1760, the late Stephan Schultz undertook the direction of the institution, which, however, now began to decline, chiefly for want of proper missionaries, and of the benevolent support of the public; however, both he and his successor, P. Beyes of Halle, continued the publication of the reports, till, in 1792, the institution was suppressed by the Prussian government. I know not with what justice, and the small remaining revenues were devoted to the Orphan House, and other benevolent institutions of the Franks."

.....
* * * We particularly call the attention of the benevolent public to the following society, *at the present period of the year*, when winter is about to set in, and its severities will be felt with a rigour that will render donations doubly acceptable. Of this service it may be truly said,

Bis dat qui cito dat.

FIRST REPORT OF THE SPITALFIELDS BENEVOLENT SOCIETY.

Treasurer, John Kincaid, Esq. Spital Square.

There is no part of this great metropolis which calls on the benevolent heart so feelingly for assistance, as the populous district embraced by this society. Spitalfields and its neighbourhood contain a vast number of manufacturing poor. Many of these poor persons are at once ignorant, industrious, and wretched. Not a few of the most worthy of them are retired sufferers. They struggle hard, in sorrow and silence, against the difficulties which oppress them. It is true charity to seek out such objects, and to communicate to them that relief which they are reluctant to ask.

Spitalfields, in its general acceptation, is a district north-east of the city, which embraces the parishes of Christ Church Spitalfields, and of St. Matthew Bethnal Green, with the hamlet of Mile End New Town; and may be considered as comprehending a portion, at least, of the parish of St. Leonard Shoreditch. The population of this district has a far greater portion of poor than any other, perhaps, of equal number, in any part of the empire: upon this part of the metropolis, therefore, all times of public difficulty press with peculiar weight.

This parish, which prior to the reign of James II. was only a desolate hamlet of St. Dunstan, Stepney, suddenly became stocked with poor inhabitants, in consequence of the French protestants being expelled from their

native country, by the despotic tyranny of Louis XIV. This great influx of people soon occasioned the building of many hundreds of houses, which corresponded with the genius and circumstances of these refugees: by them the silk manufactory was here established; and the number of cheap lodgings which were then erected concentrated many thousands of the lowest class of society, and thus, consequently, this place became the principal theatre of industry to every description of the labouring poor:—but the revocation of the edict of Nantes, just alluded to, and the inhuman system of dragooning the protestants, which immediately followed, not only banished the poor but the rich also; and these having settled in various parts of the metropolis, many French protestant churches were founded by them. At these places of worship voluntary contributions were very frequent, and from this source immense sums of money were collected, which, together with donations from other quarters, were distributed amongst their necessitous countrymen. From that period to the present day they have, as a body, gradually decreased;—by marriage, and other natural causes, they are so blended with the English, that now, in the 'third and fourth generation,' the French language, among some thousands of them, is totally unknown;—their number of churches has declined to two or three, which are but thinly attended, and, of course, their charitable funds have experienced a proportionable decay.

In proportion as trade and commerce have increased, the city has become the centre of business. Formerly it contained many alleys and courts of small houses, which were inhabited by various descriptions of their own paupers: these, however, have been all taken down,* one after another, and superior habitations have been erected in their places, many of which have been actually taken by the more wealthy tradesmen and manufacturers of Spitalfields; whilst the poor have been driven from their former residences into this neighbourhood, till at last almost the whole poor of the city of London are here congregated, and by degrees have obtained their legal settlement.

The Soup Society, in Brick Lane, has often, since its first institution in 1797, contributed most essentially to the relief of Spitalfields, and has been again in action, in this season of pressure, at loss to the institution of from £150 to £200 per week.

An inquiry into the particular circumstances of the families relieved by the Soup

* Compare Panorama, Vol. XII. p. 451, for the greatly diminished number of inhabitants now resident within the precincts of the city of London, strictly so called.

Society, has been instituted; and the result has been the forming of an "Association" of benevolent persons, who have resolved to devote a certain portion of time to the inspection and relief of some of the most distressed cases. Their plan is to visit the poor in person, and to select all those cases for particular notice, where those who have been accustomed to live comfortably upon the produce of their honest industry, are now making every effort to avoid the humiliation of falling upon the parish for support.

They have inquired into the circumstances of 1504 poor families, and with inquiries respecting their temporal wants have connected a still nobler kind—their moral and spiritual state. They learn that, in 1504 families, 725 of which are families of weavers, there are 2672 adults and 4514 children. Of the adults 1061 cannot read; and of the children only 1094 have been taught to read. Of the families, 642 state themselves to be of the established church; 492 to belong to one or other of the various classes of dissenters; 34 to be Roman catholics; and 276 to be of no religious profession—frequenting, it may be presumed, no place of worship, and living without God in the world! Of the 1504 families, nearly one half, viz. 702, are destitute of a bible!

A school for one thousand boys, on the new British System of Education, has been opened in the very midst of the poor of Spitalfields, which is already nearly full; and will be followed by another for five hundred girls, as soon as the liberality of the public shall be adequate.

But christian charity will not limit itself to the temporal necessities of the poor. It will take advantage of that access which the relief of these necessities opens to the heart, to instruct the ignorant, and to warn and counsel those who neglect God. The hours of depression and sorrow will be taken as fit occasions to point the sufferers to the only durable and solid felicity of man. And, by every kind and prudent method, it will attempt to reclaim the wicked from the error of their way, to instruct the ignorant in the true knowledge of salvation, and to comfort the dejected and the mourner.

Opulent and benevolent persons, who have it not in their power to pay personal attention to the cases and wants of the poor, are requested to entrust a portion of their substance to this society, as their stewards and almoners. It is well worth the consideration of such persons, that they ensure to their charitable contributions, when distributed through the medium of societies of this nature, a far more just and efficient application, than when they bestow them on the representations and importunities of the parties themselves.

State of the Funds.

Dr.

Subscriptions and Donations, £. s. d.	
1811	145 12 6
Collection at St. Lawrence Jew- ry, Fast day, 1812.....	32 16 8½
Sundries	0 4 3
	<hr/>
	£178 13 5½

Cr.

Pecuniary relief to 107 cases of distress, 432 individuals, at £. s. d.	
850 visits	104 4 6
Stationary and printing	11 5 5
Advertising and handbills	7 0 6
Linen, &c. for lying-in cases	2 4 9
Bibles, Testaments, and religious tracts	8 15 0
Balance in hand	45 3 3½
	<hr/>
	£178 13 5½

DIDASCALIA.

DRURY-LANE THEATRE.

This splendid theatre opened on Saturday, October 10, with *Hamlet*, preceded by an address for the occasion written by the Right Hon. Lord Byron, which having given rise subsequently, to a curious interlude and some confusion, in the theatre, we conceive it our duty to notice. The description of the house will be found in page 887 of our present number.

THE BUSBIAD.

An unlicensed Interlude.

Interlocutors Messrs. Busby, Sen. and Jun.

After the play on Wednesday, Oct. 14, one of the most singular scenes occurred that we ever witnessed in a theatre on or off the stage. The curtain had scarcely descended, after the *Hypocrite* had been performed, when a young man who was in the pit, close to the stage, rose and addressed the audience with great earnestness, to request their attention to what he had to state, and he was confident that when they were in possession of the circumstances which he wished to unfold, his conduct would cease to create surprise.—He was still endeavouring to speak when the curtain was drawn up, and Mr. Holland advanced to give out the play, and appeared quite confounded to find another in possession of the house. The unknown seemed to insist upon his right to precedence, and exerted himself to the utmost to obtain a

hearing before another was permitted to speak. Holland came forward, and it was difficult to determine which was most confused, the young man in the pit, or the actor on the stage. The audience, as is usual whenever a theatrical dispute arises, took different parts in the controversy, and some were clamorous that the one should be listened to, and some that the other should be heard. Holland now appeared to recover from his surprise, and reflecting that it was not of the greatest importance that what he had to say should be heard, announced the play in the midst of the tumult, and retired. The young man again endeavoured to make himself heard, but without success.—The cries of “*hear!*” “*silence!*” &c. which burst from all parts of the theatre, completely overpowered his efforts, and we could not catch a single word. He then displayed a paper which it was understood he wished to read. A few thoughtless young men, and a *mauvais plaisir* or two, exclaimed, “*get on the stage! get on the stage!*” when to their great surprise and astonishment, he really mounted the stage. On making his first appearance on these boards, he met with hisses and applause. He then walked nearly across the stage, and made a most profound bow to the audience, and was about to speak; when Mr. Raymond, the manager, entered from behind. He advanced to the front of the stage, and made a stand very near the young man, and both stood bowing to the audience for some time; each then attempted to address the audience, and the audience hissed both. Mutually disappointed, they now addressed each other without being heard.—The voice of the audience seemed in favour of the *unknown*—and Mr. Raymond perceiving this, at length intimated, “that if it was the wish of the house to hear that gentleman, he (Mr. R.) would give place to him.” This was followed by applause, and Mr. Raymond made his *exit*.—The young gentleman once more endeavoured to make himself heard, but without effect; though, from the prodigious effrontery of his manner and impassioned gestures, many were as anxious to hear him as he was to be heard. Silence, however, could not be obtained, and the utmost confusion prevailed in the theatre, some calling as loudly “*go on!*” and others “*go off!*” Matters stood thus when Mr. Raymond entered again. He remained on the stage but a very few moments, and after exchanging a few words with the *unknown*, retired. The latter made a new appeal to the audience, which was not more fortunate than his former efforts—and clasping his hands with vexation, and seeming *au désespoir*, he appeared to be at a loss what step to take, when two police officers entered, (their first appearance likewise on this stage,) and

and bore him away in custody, amidst a tumult of hisses and approbation.

The farce of *The Bee Hive* commenced, and Mr. Penson, who, as *Mingre*, first came forward, met with so rude a reception, that he was obliged to retreat. After a pause of a minute or two, he again made his appearance, and the storm again rose so high, that it was impossible for him to proceed in his part. He now appealed to the audience, stated himself to be placed in a very awkward situation, and solicited their indulgence. This had not the effect of appeasing the assembly, and he again left the stage, when Mr. Raymond once more came forward and said,—

“ Ladies and Gentlemen,—I desire most respectfully to ask what is your wish?”

“ Explanation.” — “ Bring forward the man.” — “ Why did you seize him?” and a hundred other exclamations burst at once from the audience.

Mr. Raymond then went on—“ An unknown person has this night attempted to disturb your entertainment—”

Here he was interrupted by several persons in the pit, who contended that the person was not unknown, that it was *Young George Frederick Busby, Esq.* that the subject of his intended appeal was, to vindicate the talents of the country from the odium cast upon it by the choice of *Lord Byron's* address—this object he intended to effect by the recitation of a Monologue, previously seen by the Committee of Drury-lane, written by his father, Dr. Busby, and that he had not attempted to disturb the entertainment of the audience.

Mr. Raymond mentioned, that he had disturbed the audience, stated it to be his duty to prevent any disturbance, and appealed to the house if it was regular for any person so to leave another part of the house, and come on the stage to address them?

The manager's conduct was very highly approved of, and the audience were at length relieved from this disgusting insult to their understanding, — and thus closed the first part of the *BUSEBAS*.

But on the following evening, immediately on the conclusion of the comedy of the *Rivals*, Dr. Busby, who was in the first seat of the third tier of boxes, presented himself to the audience, and bowing respectfully to all parts of the house, attempted to address them. For some minutes however, the tumult was so great of friends and foes, hisses and plaudits, that not a single sentence could be heard. As soon as any thing like silence could be obtained, he introduced himself in the true High German style of pompous quackery, as “ *Ego sum Doctor Busbeus!! Doctor!! Docissimus!! Hy- per-Docissimus!!* I proceeding :

“ *I am Doctor Busby, a lover, a member of the drama, and a friend to the Theatre—*

(*Loud cheering, hisses, and hear him!*)—

Ladies and gentlemen, by some I may be blamed for taking this method of addressing you, as being humiliating to a gentleman; but I can see no greater impropriety in speaking from the public box of a public theatre, than from a forum, or from the hustings at an election.—(*Loud cheering, with some disapprobation.*)—Ladies and gentlemen—for the talents and qualifications of the Right Hon. Noble and Illustrious Lord, who wrote the Address which you have heard this night recited to you, I have the highest respect.—(*Applause and hisses.*)—It is well known, that for several weeks, the Committee, appointed to manage the concerns of this Theatre, have, by public advertisement, courted the exertions of the literary world, to prepare an address to be spoken at the opening of this truly magnificent structure. This was on their part noble and praiseworthy, but it must be allowed on all hands that however right they have been in intention, they have most lamentably erred in judgment—” (*Here the noise and tumult was so great that the Doctor for some minutes could not proceed.*) “ The number of persons who condescended to furnish addresses, he believed, had exceeded one hundred, and those who thought that out of such a number a better could not have been selected, did not think so highly of the poetical talent of the country as he did. Among them it must be believed that some were very fine. He himself knew of four or five of that description.—(*Cries of “ Your own; and your son's were among them, no doubt!”*)

The bell now rang for the music, and the voice of the speaker was lost in the sounds which issued from the orchestra. When the music ceased, he again attempted to address the house. The curtain, however, at this moment rose for the farce. Mr. Horn entered, but was obliged, by the voice of the audience, to retire. After a short pause he again came on with Mr. Knight, and attempted to commence the performance, but the cries of “ Off, off,” were so loud, that it was impossible for them to go on. Both left the stage, and Mr. Raymond made his appearance. Silence being obtained, he addressed the audience in these words :—

“ Ladies and Gentlemen,—Is it your wish that we should proceed with the farce?”

The audience seemed generally to signify a wish that the performance should go on, and Mr. Raymond bowed and retired.—The farce commenced, but the tumult continued so high, that for some time nothing could be heard. It subsided towards the close of the first scene, and went on without interruption. Dr. Busby resumed his seat, having been desired by several persons to defer what he had to say till the entertainment was over. At

the end of the first act the Doctor rose again, but had not time to speak before the second act commenced. The performance over, he once more presented himself.

" *I have a strong, a powerful motive (says he) for requesting your attention. I am a friend to the Theatre. I wish to open the way to super-excellence; to bring forward strong and powerful talent instead of letting it sink into oblivion. Gentlemen, I am a friend to merit, and more especially to modest merit.—My son is now in the house with an address which I had prepared for the opening of this Theatre, and nothing would be a greater pride and satisfaction to me than that he should be allowed by the managers to rehearse it on the stage, if you will give him leave.*"

This was immediately acceded to. At this happy moment, however, when all seemed to favour the Doctor's wishes, he was very adroitly seized by two Bow-street officers, who dragged him out of the box, and forced him towards the saloon. The scene of interest was now changed, and the lobbies became in a moment scarcely passable from the crowd. Doctor Busby took advantage of this incident with uncommon presence of mind; and instantly commenced a battle which lasted toughly on both sides till the combatants now swelled to a great number. He was, however, forced along to the great stairs, and was in the very crisis of Bow-street, when he made another effort for victory, by making a lodgment on the steps. The gravity which might have been prejudicial to the poet was the most fortunate thing possible for the pugilist; and sitting on the steps, not all the force of all the Bow-street officers could shake him. The Doctor was released and borne triumphantly through the corridors, and reinstated in the boxes in all the pride of victory. He there recommenced the interrupted speech, and informed the house, that

" Considering himself now *the champion of their rights*, and also as much a freeman as he was conqueror, he should give them the opportunity of hearing **SUCH A MONOLOGUE AS THEY HAD SELDOM HEARD.**—(*Cries of bravo—The Prologue—Go on, Doctor.*)—He acknowledged their kind partiality with more than common gratitude, for more than common compliment to his quip; but he must now mention, that if they were as sincere as he was in their desire to hear his verses, they must hear them from his son, who had been all this while stationed in the pit with the monologue by heart, that they might have the power of judging for themselves. It was, however necessary that they should secure him from being hustled off, in the performance of this *his duty to the public.*"

After this speech, which was almost unin-

telligible from hisses and plaudits, Young Busby prepared to mount the stage. At the same moment Mr. Raymond came out, and seemed inclined to address the house, when finding its sense determined, he retired, saying, as we understand, that the reciter should not be interrupted. Mr. Busby then began, and if the distinctness of his elocution had been equal to the effrontery and energy of his gesture, Lord Byron must have " bid his diminished head;" but by peculiar ill fortune, with the exception of the few first lines, in consequence of the uproar, and the spluttering delivery of the reciter, the audience were left to their bare imaginations.

However, nothing abashed by innate modesty, the *young gentleman* continued the recitation for some time, when he was at length stopped by the following address from a person in the boxes:—

" *Mr. Busby,—I would advise you to go home, if you cannot make use of a stronger voice. You ought not to presume to get on that stage to detain the company, if you cannot speak so that we may distinctly hear; and I must tell you, that not a word of what you say can be understood here from the smallness of your voice, however elegant and large your ideas may be!*"

Young Mr. Busby requested a hearing, and proceeded for some time longer. Frequent interruptions, however, marred all his efforts, and without reaching the conclusion of his address, he may be said to have ended as he began,—and thus ended the second part of the interlude of the **BUSBIAD.**

Our readers, we hope, will excuse us from inserting the Doctor's monologue; a few of the introductory lines by way of specimen will suffice. The address the managers have chosen, written by Lord Byron, will be found in page 895 of our present number. Whoever recollects the excellent composition of Dr. Johnson for the opening of Drury-lane theatre in Garrick's time, will no doubt make their comparisons. At all events we cannot but pity the man who could claim the palm,—*Palman qui meruit ferat*—for the following lines :

*When energizing objects then pursue,
What are the prodigies they cannot do?
A magic edifice you here survey,
Shot from the ruins of the other day!
As Harlequin had smote the slumberous heap,
And bade the rubbish to a fabric leap.
Yet at the speed you'd never be amaz'd,
Knew you the zeal with which the pile was
raised;
Nor ever here your smiles would be repress'd,
Knew you the rival flame that fires our
breast.*

Flame! fire and flame! and, heart-appalling sounds,
Dread metaphors, that *ope our* healing wounds,
A sleeping pang awake—and—*But away*
With all reflection that would cloud the day,
&c. &c.

Yes, certainly, "all reflection" upon the "leaping rubbish" of Dr. B.'s, "slumbrous heap" would perforce "cloud the day," notwithstanding his "flame!" his clearing "fire and flame,"—and what with the "whens"—"whats"—"cannot dos"—"shots from the other day"—"you'd nevers"—"nor ever heres"—it would be advisable for the good Doctor to follow the advice of a French wit: "Ah! le pauvre homme! allez-vous coucher! tais-toi, et allez-vous coucher, mon ami! tu as besoing de dormir!"—To be serious, it was naturally to be expected that much discontent should prevail among those poets who had missed the laurel which the Committee of Drury-lane held forth; but they should remember, that the condition of being allowed to engage for the palm was an implied submission to the judgment of the tribunal. If the Committee selected the poet, it is equally true that the candidates have selected the Committee—Whether the Committee chose, therefore, the worst or the best address, they are responsible to no man. It is quite absurd to talk of the national genius being degraded by their selection. The poetical reputation of the country does not depend upon private opinion. Every writer, of course, thinks his own address the best, and conceives himself injured by the preference of the Committee. Let him think so quietly and privately, and exclaim against partiality among his own friends, but he has no right to annoy the managers or insult the audience by obtruding, according to the impulse of his own silly vanity, his rejected *doggrel* upon them. He has no right to disturb the tranquillity of the theatre by haranguing from the boxes or the stage; if he does so, he is a trespasser, whom the proprietors, in justice to the public, ought to punish by impounding, as a violator of the public peace and amusement—For although the patience of the managers may be a proof of their good nature, yet they owe much to public decorum, and we trust that the laws of the land will be strong enough to coerce those whom the laws of *decency* cannot restrain from pestering the audience with such egregious specimens of their disgusting egotism.—The Siting Magistrates of Bow-street must lend their kind assistance to their brethren of the Committee—The malicious and the turbulent must be transmitted, with proper attendants, to the *slips* of Clerkenwell; the absolute incurable to the better fitted-up *private boxes* of Bedlam.

COVENT GARDEN THEATRE.

A new drama called *The Æthiop*, has appeared at this theatre.

Its numerous incongruities, its extravagance of plot, and caricature of sentiment, seized us with an irresistible propensity to laugh: but when we reflected that it was exhibited on the chief theatre of "the most thinking people of the world," as the English have been called both by themselves and foreigners, we experienced a feeling bordering on indignation and contempt. We cannot but consider what the English stage has been, as an involuntary recollection of Shakespeare flits across our minds; not, indeed, that the name of Mr. Dimond, the author of this piece, ought to be dragged into comparison with that immortal name; but we do think that the scene which has been ennobled with the genius of the one, ought not to be disgraced with the ranting mockeries of the other. We are aware that this, our pity or anger, may appear to many very ridiculous, for "the enlightened and liberal British public," as the playhouse bills call the audience, seemed to be vastly delighted with the tawdry scenery, and more tawdry poetry, and were not a little enraged at an injudicious few, whose old-fashioned memories, imbued, perhaps with the ideas of the poets of ancient time, induced them to hiss. We will, therefore, merely discuss the merits of the drama with all that goodnature for which critics are famous. The personages of this great piece are first of the first, as Aristotle says, a very pestilent-minded fellow, one Almanza, who breathes nothing but rage and murder against his Sovereign, Haroun Al-rashid, whose father had murdered his (Almanza's) brother. Next comes a little boy, nephew to the above, and son of the deceased Ali; he, as is perfectly natural, being of a remarkably soft and delicate constitution, detests cities and palaces, and expresses a vast anxiety for the solitude of savage rocks, and hideous deserts. Last of this curious group is a mysterious Æthiop, who makes people invisible, moves massy tombs with the touch of his finger, has a thorough contempt for grandeur and empire, but at the same time burns with a vehement desire for a bridal kiss from one Sephania. These three congenial minds concert the death of Alrashid, and after a proper mixture of oaths, imprecations, and dire solemnities, Almanza rushes to the couch of the Monarch to murder him, when lo! *presto!* up starts the sleeping Sovereign, and turns out to be the Æthiop washed white; who all along, with a sagacity peculiar to that great man, as the Arabian writer tell us, had smelt the plot, and had ingeniously defeated it by means utterly incomprehensible to all but himself.

ON MENDICITY: ITS CAUSES, DIVERSITIES,
AND MODE OF SUPPRESSION.

No. VII.

To the Editor of the Literary Panorama.

Sir,—As the correspondence which you have been pleased to admit into your valuable work is drawing towards a close, I shall proceed to suggest some thoughts on steps, which, if taken, might confer *immediate* relief on those who are now pining in misery and want. Undoubtedly, it is extremely desirable that principles should be laid down, which reduced to practice, would extirpate and prevent mendicity altogether. This, is however, beyond my powers. In populous nations, and civilized society, this evil always has existed, and it appears to have prevailed in proportion to the refinements of the age. It is, likely, therefore, that it ever will continue, unless such total devastation should cover the earth that men should be unable to obtain any thing beyond the mere supports of nature, like the beasts of the field : which is saying in other terms, that all were beggars. To that state we are not yet reduced ; and in spite of the efforts of our implacable enemy, civilization still holds up its head ; and industry, generally speaking, so far prospers, that whatever extraordinary cases may be thought exceptions, it presents a refuge from want, misery, and mendicity. Industry also is the direct opponent of crime. The busy are not the schemers of inroads on the property of their neighbours. The man who labours by day, does not rob by night. He has been taught an occupation ; and on that he depends for support. How unhappy then are those who have been taught no occupation at all ! This is the misfortune of thieves, generally, and of the major part of mendicants, who infest our streets. Their parents taught them no honest labour. They teach *their children* no honest labour. What they neglect, it is my design to recommend to the public to do for them : to become in their stead *instructive* parents to their children, which would at once remove them from the continuation of their present course of life, and would strengthen the community by the addition of some thousands of active hands.

Let it not be said, that such an institution, (or institutions) is too vast, too complicated, too extensive to be accomplished. We have seen what can be accomplished by order and method, in the popular schools lately patronized among us ; the same energy, the same principles, the same assiduity and perseverance, would infallibly accomplish much more than is necessary for the purpose intended in this representation. I propose, therefore,

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to consider in the present letter, the relief of the mendicant poor by care of their children ; and in a concluding letter the relief of mendicants themselves by assistance afforded them in those instances, wherein they are at present the greatest, because continual sufferers.

It is evident that I do not mean to recommend the voluntary beggar, who is able to work, and will not. The sturdy mendicant who forces alms from passengers by teasing, and not seldom by terror, who begs by day and robs by the shades of evening, is not the man whom I mean to serve ;—except as professed thieves and predators should be served, by the hands of justice, the corrections of the laws, and punishments inflicted on them for their restraint, and if possible, their amendment. Let these be delivered to the lash of the beadle as “rogues and vagabonds,” under which character they justly are contemplated, in the eye of the law.

The policy as well as benevolence of preserving the children of the labouring poor, of mendicants, and of convicts from that misery, depravity and ignominy to which negligence necessarily exposes them, is now universally admitted.

Eligible and extensive plans of education are now patronized by the royal family, the nobility, and the general munificence of the opulent, by which all these hitherto neglected classes of children will be furnished with that degree of learning, which will be of use to them, and what is, if possible, still more important, they will be trained from their infancy to habits of cleanliness, industry, and proper subordination, to principles of morality, virtue, and religion.

A man of common humanity cannot look upon infants, destined from their birth to their severe fate, without feeling the most tender compassion for them, with the most anxious desire to snatch them from perdition, and obtain for them that education and those asylums in which their infant years may be so employed as to render them, when they arrive at maturity, industrious, respectable and happy members of that community which should thus generously support them.

It would be the most noble exertion of patriotism thus to rescue from guilt and misery thousands of both sexes who are now at once the outcasts and the pests of society. The attempt is by no means impracticable. It cannot even be accounted difficult, aided as it now is, by that invigorating spirit of benevolence which diffuses its influence from the British throne to the most distant possession of her extensive empire.

In 1803, Mr. Martin estimated the number of beggars in the metropolis at 15,288 : of which he stated 9,288 to be children, and their maintenance, levied on the public by mendicity, at £42,370. 10s. per annum. A

considerable augmentation in number, and a still greater proportion of expense in maintaining them, has since occurred.

Nevertheless the expense of thus providing for, and educating the infant poor, and particularly the offspring of convicts and beggars, cannot be deemed a reasonable objection.—It is no less the *interest* than the duty of the public to protect, educate, and support them till they are capable of earning their own subsistence; since by deserting or neglecting them, they are suffered to be systematically trained up to the highest proficiency in villainy; and thus are maintained by the public in a manner the most disgraceful, impolitic, and expensive.—It is an undeniable fact that not only these various classes of infant poor, but public predators of all ages, sizes, and denominations, must ultimately derive their maintenance from the community.

The only question therefore, with respect to the infant poor is, whether they should be suffered to gain their livelihood by lawless violence, fraud, and rapine, or be instructed and assisted in doing it by honest industry? or in other words whether their existence should be an injury or a benefit to society?

By the adoption of a public institution all these miserable outcasts of society would be immediately placed in a situation where they would, in a few years, be qualified to earn their future subsistence; though it may probably be attended at its first opening with much more than the above estimated expense.* But admitting it to be doubled, trebled, or even increased in a tenfold proportion (which it certainly would not be) the benefits of such an institution not only to the children thus redeemed from destruction but to the community would greatly outweigh it. Its beneficial effects would also be immediately felt by the number of adult beggars which would then remain.—For on Mr. Martin's calculation, taking it in round numbers and supposing no subsequent increase, it would reduce them from 15,000 to 6000. Of this number many of the women might be usefully employed in the proposed establishment; and a very large proportion of those mendicants of both sexes who were not reduced to beggary by age or infirmity, but by numerous families for which they were unable to provide, and which even by their increase rendered *maternal* assistance in attempting it impossible, would be able, and (it is to be

* A separate workhouse for children was erected at Norwood a few years ago for the extensive parish of Lambeth, and by many of the parishioners much complained of. But its beneficial effects are already evident, as the children are remarkably healthy and clean, have proper education, and nearly maintain themselves.—Such facts need no comment.

hoped) willing, to support themselves.—With respect to such as would not readily profit by such seasonable and unexpected relief, the present laws against vagrancy might be justly and vigorously enforced.

The widows and children of convicts, although too generally indebted for their sustenance to the wages of iniquity, may many of them be innocent; the *infants* certainly are so. But how should they possibly continue in that state? Neglected by that community whose laws have deprived them of their support, to whom should they apply for subsistence but to the associates of their late unhappy parents? By these they will be received, and not only maintained but instructed in the early rudiments of that *profession* by which they are in future to subsist. *Thievery* has long since become a *science*, and no sooner are these outcasts of the community arrived at an age to be capable of distinguishing good from evil than they are *systematically* trained to the latter, by the most able and industrious proficients. Other trades require a long apprenticeship, and some professions demand many years of previous instruction; but in this, no such preparatory education is necessary. The human mind, uncultivated and neglected is too prone to imbibe the principles of idleness and vice. Experience fatally proves that the precepts of virtue and morality inculcated by instruction, enforced by authority and recommended by example, are too often insufficient to restrain these evil propensities. How then should a *child*, fostered, perhaps, by the vilest, or, at best, the most degraded of the human race—inured to wickedness from its earliest dawn of reason—educated in a *state of war* with virtue and social order, be otherwise than an *enemy* to the community? How should this confirmed depraved, who must consider every honest man as his foe, and every opulent one as his prize, avoid the snares or escape the punishment of vice? The progress of such a being in the precipitate course of guilt must be rapid, violent, and dangerous in the extreme. Injurious to his fellow creatures and destructive to himself—he is at once an object of horror and compassion.

Now does the mischief end here, for the destructive influence of such examples must contaminate all the uneducated, infant poor with whom they associate. It cannot be wondered at that the male offspring of beggars, even when mendicity is the result of real indigence and misery, encouraged by the example of their vile companions, and stimulated by the resistless temptations of hunger, cold and nakedness, should pursue the same violent, dangerous and injurious course, and experience the same deplorable and untimely end.

The lives of the *female* infant poor who

are thus cruelly consigned to infamy and guilt; are equally vicious and perhaps still more miserable to themselves and more destructive to the community than those of the males.—Doomed by such impolitic neglect to a state of existence in which the highest degree of human depravity and misery are inseparably united, they must suffer the infamy, the abuse, the diseases, the wants, the innumerable and complicated horrors (of the most abject state of prostitution!

The restriction of the Philanthropic Society which requires that candidates (of either sex) for admission should be the *children of capital convicts*, or have committed some felonious act for which their youth alone rescues them from condign punishment, may appear, on a superficial view, irreconcileable with the well known benevolence of that laudable institution.

But on a more attentive investigation it will be evident that this limitation is the effect not of choice but of necessity. Even within these apparently narrow bounds it is a well known fact that the number of applicants far exceeds either the space of the institution to admit, or its funds to provide for.

The benefits resulting from the active co-operation of the legislature in this benevolent purpose would be felt in a double proportion, and are therefore to be estimated not only by the evil that would be prevented, but by the good that would be produced. That such would be not only the necessary but the *immediate* effect of rescuing many thousands of miserable children from their present state of mendicity, and making them useful members of society, is too evident to require demonstration, or to admit of doubt.

The wisdom of the legislature, directed by the benevolence of many of its members who are practically acquainted with the state of morals, &c. in their respective counties and parishes, would improve and perfect any proposal that might be submitted to that august body, founded on the crude hints suggested in these papers. My object is to impress on the mind of the public, the duty itself, and the possibility of performing that duty;—when this is *felt*, there will not be wanting men of abilities to render applicable proposals efficient; and these sanctioned by the legislative body, and executed with the power of government, could not fail of producing infinite benefit, in which all humane hearts would rejoice; and which would give infinite pleasure to, Sir, yours, &c.

BRITANNICUS.

Errata.

Page 479, line 31, for shortly read *shortly*.
Notes, line 12, for 1s. 3*d*. read 1s. 1*d*.
480 line 7, for enlightened, read of *an enlightened*.

EXPULSION OF THE KAFFERS FROM THE SETTLED COUNTRY IN SOUTH AFRICA.

[Compare Panorama, Vol XI. page 1080.]

Cape Town, March 7, 1812.

The intelligence which reached government yesterday from Lieut. Col. Graham, is of a most satisfactory nature; it announces the total expulsion of the Kaffer tribes from his majesty's territories, within the limits of which it is now evident that they had long harboured the design of firmly and permanently establishing themselves.

This object, of so much importance to the colony, has been accomplished with scarcely any loss on our part; and we are happy to add, with no further effusion of hostile blood than what may be considered as necessary to impress a proper degree of terror upon the minds of the Kaffer chiefs.

It will not fail, however, to be satisfactory to the public in general, and to those in particular who had opportunities of knowing the virtues of the late Landdrost of Graaff-Reinet, that some of the savages who so wantonly and cruelly deprived him of life, have already met the punishment of their guilt. The principal instigators to his murder, a chief called Gemina, and his brother, have been slain; and the whole of the cattle belonging to Chunuba, another chief who assisted in the perpetration of that barbarous act, have fallen into our hands.

In the whole course of the service that has been performed, the prompt and judicious arrangements of Lieut. Col. Graham are conspicuous, while the conduct of the troops, and the commanders, has, in every instance, fulfilled the hopes, and merited the approbation of government.

During the very harassing operation of scouring the mountainous, woody, and deeply intersected country of the Riet and Zuur Bergs, into whose intricate mazes the Kaffers fled for shelter and concealment, when driven from the Kraals they had formed in the Zuurveld, the armed inhabitants have evinced an attention to order, and a patient endurance of fatigue, that would be creditable to troops long habituated to active military duty. This conduct may inspire a confidence in the future security of the remote districts, when it is considered that the military posts at present establishing upon the frontier line can, in the event of necessity, derive support from a population urged to the defence of their families and properties, by a recollection of former success, and by the natural desire of man to maintain a good character unsullied.

2 E 2

THE HISTORY OF THE TEMPLE OF
JAGNAUT ; OR JAGGERNAUT.

DRAWN UP BY A BRAHAMIN, WHO WAS
BORN IN THE VICINITY OF ORISSA.

[Continued from page 656.]

Yeagnia then took leave of the god Nilachalapattie and went directly on his mission to his royal patron. After a long and tedious journey of six months, he arrived at a rier in the vicinity of Samnaveti where he performed his religious ceremonies, &c. and immediately entered the city. Indredumman and his royal consort happened just at the time to be walking in one of the upper apartments of the palace and espied him afar off. Filled at once with the greatest astonishment they exclaimed, "Has the Sun left the heavens and come down to approach us? No other object can reflect so great lustre; never did we behold so much splendour before." The Rajah ran into the street to meet him, calling on all around him to prostrate themselves before this great personage, and taking him by the hand, conducted him into his palace, set him on his throne, and while waiting upon him, he exclaimed—"Is this a Brahmin or one of the gods come down from heaven? This is certainly the great Vishnoo himself." While employed washing his feet and waiting on him like a servant * the great Indredumman ventured to accost him thus "Permit me to ask who you are and from whence you have come? You appear to be one of the gods; I am therefore exceedingly happy that you have been pleased to enter my palace, for by this fortunate event I shall no doubt obtain the forgiveness of all my sins and everlasting felicity."

The Brahmin.—"My Lord, do you not know Yeagnia your own adopted son?" The Rajah and his royal consort were greatly surprised on hearing these words, and enquired how his countenance had become so glorious and divine? and whether gods or men had made so great a change? He immediately gratified their wishes, by giving them a plain and faithful account of all that he had seen and heard, during his travels.

The Rajah—"I am heartily glad that you have been so fortunate, and consider myself very highly honored in having adopted you in early life. The interview which you enjoyed with Nilachalapattie accounts for your glorious and divine aspect; but what penances must you have endured in your former existence to merit such favors as these! But I

* There are some extravagant phrases used in various parts of the history which it would perhaps be improper to translate.

am a great sinner; how can I expect to obtain an interview with the Lord of the Universe? How many times must I be born in this world before I can be so highly favored, as to hear the deity converse with men? What are all my riches, and honors, and possessions, and pleasures, or even life itself when compared with this? Will they accompany me or any one else beyond the present state of existence? No—they are all vanity and falsehood. But if men would learn to know and adore the deity, and to do acts of kindness to their fellow creatures, these holy deeds would accompany them beyond death and the grave. I am therefore resolved should it cost me my life, to have an interview with that god; and as I have brought you up as my own son, I request in return, that you conduct me to his sacred residence."

Yeagnia.—"My Lord, a prince cannot bear the fatigues and difficulties of such a long and tedious journey. I accomplished it in six months, but I had to travel very fast and to pass through innumerable dangers in those uninhabited regions. Could a great Rajah like you travel over lofty mountains, explore barren deserts, or penetrate extensive forests, unfrequented by men and filled with ravenous beasts? Besides, you would not undertake such a journey alone; and if you were to carry a numerous train with you, that sacred place would be discovered, which perhaps might involve us in new difficulties. The devotees of that god, on seeing your camp would probably approach it in an hostile manner, and if you experienced any disaster you would be displeased with me, and such a trial would most likely cost me my life."

The Rajah.—"But I intend to leave my army and take only a few attendants with me, hence why fear all these troubles, or imagine that I would use you ill?"

As no time was to be lost, he immediately set out with a retinue consisting of four thousand elephants, eight thousand camels, twelve thousand tents, twenty four thousand bullocks, fifty thousand attendants, and one thousand subcdars, and travelled about two eoss (four English miles) every day. The various Rajahs through whose dominions he passed, imagining that he came as an invader, were alarmed and fled before him, while the inhabitants deserted the towns and villages, leaving the whole produce of their gardens and farms to be consumed or destroyed by the camp. After a long and tedious march of two years he arrived at the edge of the sacred forest and immediately encamped. As soon as the elephants, horses, &c. were around the camp and every necessary arrangement made, orders were issued to beat the

great drums. The sound of course much alarmed Nilaachalapattie's servants, for the earth shook under it, while the skies echoed, and the stars fell to the ground; the mountains were removed, and the eight corners of the world were rent. The seven families living at the foot of the sacred mountain, ascended it in the greatest haste and while running about like so many frightened jackals they espied the camp. Imagining it was a large collection of birds and beasts which they had never seen before, they armed themselves with bows and arrows, and as soon as they began an attack the whole camp was thrown into the greatest confusion. Great numbers of the elephants, camels, horses and bullocks were killed, others fled into the forest and could not be found, and many while endeavouring to gain their liberty were strangled on the spot. While the Rajah saw his whole camp overthrown, and the blood of his servants running like a river he was in the greatest distress and addressed Yeagnia thus—"I adopted you when an infant, and have treated you in every respect like a son, while you have been accustomed to look up to me as your father. As you belong to the sacred caste and profess to be a person of piety and virtue, and as you formerly acted with fidelity, I reposed the greatest confidence in you, but now owing to your treachery I see my camp destroyed and my attendants slain. It is true you mentioned the length of the journey, and a few difficulties which would attend it, these however I did not regard, but had I been aware of the present disaster I would not have left my kingdom. Do you think I would have come here to be killed by the servants of that god? Where is he? You said he ordered me to come, here I am; why do you not introduce me to him, or go yourself and represent my misfortunes? Did you conduct me here to take my life also?"

Yeagnia was greatly ashamed and grieved on hearing these words, and directly ascended the sacred mountain. But while he was on the way Nilaachalapattie, who had heard the whole circumstance, ordered his servants to be called; and having disarmed them, said "that Rajah has come to visit this holy place; why have you attacked his camp? who gave you permission?"

The Servants.—"O Lord protect thy servants. We did not know this circumstance, hence no blame is to be attached to us thy children. We were not aware that the world extended beyond this forest, or that it was inhabited by the same order of beings as ourselves. For ages past we and all that belong to us have been employed in thy service, and have had as little knowledge of mankind as the wild beasts around us. In short we

thought that the camp was a large collection of wild beasts and under this idea began an attack."

Nilaachalapattie.—"You must not approach the camp in a hostile manner again; remain here."

Just as he had issued these orders, Yeagnia entered the pagoda, bathed in tears and exclaimed "O God thou art lord of the universe. I am the Brahmin who received thy command to bring the great Rajah Indredumun to this highly favored spot, but as soon as he approached it thy servants attacked his camp, and killed the greater part of his attendants; so that few remain but the Rajah and myself. But what greatly increases my trouble is this—he who nourished and brought me up as his own son is highly displeased with me, considers me guilty of falsehood, and in short the cause of all his affliction, hence on account of these things I am likely to lose my life:—and I am so much dishonored and ashamed by this affair that I am determined rather to die at thy feet than see his face again." Observing that Nilaachalapattie remained silent he mused in his mind thus—"what has occasioned such a change? When I first visited this god he conversed with me in the most open and encouraging manner, and commanded me to bring the Rajah here; I have acted agreeably to his orders, but now he remains silent: I cannot approach my sovereign again for he would certainly consider me a deceiver after what I have told him. Nothing but death awaits me; it is difficult to obtain death in the presence of god; let me embrace this favorable opportunity, and end my days at once. I have often addressed my prayers to him and hope to obtain happiness."—He then untied his upper cloth and placed it round his neck in order to put an end to his life, but Nilaachalapattie being aware of his intention, and also of his innocence, descended from his throne and taking the cloth from his neck and lifting him up enquired what was the cause of his trouble, and why he was going to strangle himself?

The Brahmin.—"O God I have obeyed thy command and conducted the great Indredumun to this sacred place, but as soon as he and his camp arrived at the edge of the forest, the servants devoted to thy service attacked the camp; great numbers were slain, and while the Rajah viewed his loss with great sorrow, and considered me as the cause of this great disaster, I came here to mention the circumstance, but receiving no answer and having no one to support me I resolved to put an end to my life."

Nilaachalapattie.—"I have commanded my servants not to molest the Rajah; therefore

be not afraid ; go and bring him that I may converse with him."

Yeagnia.—" O God thy servants have completely destroyed his camp * which has given him the greatest uneasiness, and as he considers me the cause of this disaster, he would neither believe my word nor accompany me : I must decline approaching him ; but if some of these thy servants be dispatched to call him he will come." Nilaachalapattie immediately ordered his attendants to go with flowers, garlands, sandal-wood and the shattagopum † and invite the Rajah to ascend the mountain. But when they approached the royal camp Indredummun dispatched some of his servants to enquire what they wanted, adding " what new disaster is this ? The Brahamin has not yet returned, which betokens no good. Perhaps they have received orders to kill us all—go directly, and enquire." In the mean time the messengers drew near and addressed his trembling servants thus—" our god sent us here to invite your Rajah to ascend the sacred mountain." Indredummun received the intelligence with great joy ; and after conducting these strangers into the royal pavilion, he enquired whether they had seen Yeagnia, and whether he was dead or alive ?

The messengers.—" My Lord, we saw a venerable Brahmin on the top of the mountain whose countenance was like the sun ; god was conversing with him in the most friendly manner ; and in compliance with their commands we are come to invite you to ascend to the Pagoda, and enjoy an interview with the governor of the world." They then presented the Shattagopum, perfumed and adorned him with flowers and garlands, and invited him to accompany them.

The Rajah.—" But why has not my Brahmin returned ? I will not ascend the mount unless he come." When the messengers heard these words, four of them returned in the greatest haste and made the following report.—" O god we have obeyed thy command. Before we reached the camp, the Rajah, aware of our approaching had ordered some of his servants to come and enquire what we wanted. As soon as we drew near

* We shall shortly find the Rajah accompanied by a large retinue ; we are not told how he mustered this new train. But this is not the only inconsistency of the history before us.

† The Brahamins inform us that this is a small image to represent the foot of god ; and that it is customary to place it on the head of an idol. It seems to have been sent as a mark of respect.

the royal pavilion, he came out to meet us ; and having prostrated himself before the Shattagopum we placed it on his head, and perfumed and adorned him. He then enquired where his Brahmin was ? and on being informed, declared that he would not ascend the mountain unless we brought him—hence we came in haste to mention this circumstance and now wait thy command."

Nilaachalapattie ordered the Brahmin to accompany the messengers ; who immediately returned and repeated their message.

The Rajah to Yeagnia.—" Have you visited Nilaachalapattie ? Is he well in health ? Did you inform him of the sad disasters which have befallen me."

Yeagnia.—" My lord, I laid before him a full account of all that happened ; he severely rebuked his servants ; and now invites you to ascend the mountain that he may converse with you—hence let us go without farther delay."

The Rajah.—" I consider myself more fortunate than any of my predecessors in having already received by these messengers such real proofs of the divine favor ; and I doubt not, on approaching the lord of the universe, but I shall taste of celestial bliss. It is always customary however, when I visit any god, for to receive his umbrella, but this has not been sent on the present occasion. I am indeed aware of my great inferiority when compared with Nilaachalapattie ; but if I be not honored with his umbrella the people will not pay me that respect which is due to a prince, I therefore request you to protect my royal dignity ; and if you have not mentioned this circumstance already, return again and make it known."

Yeagnia having ascended to the Pagoda, Nilaachalapattie immediately enquired why the Rajah had not accompanied him ?

Yeagnia.—" O god forgive me, and behold me as thy son. Be pleased to know that when the great Indredummun visits the different pagodas the sacred umbrella is carried to him, but as it has not been sent on the present occasion, he waits thy divine command."

The great governor of the world replied with a smile, " That foolish man seems to know nothing. Why insist for marks of dignity now ? Who will confer them ?" This displeasure however was only such as a father will shew to his child, for he dispatched his servants with the umbrella, and to prevent a farther delay sent also the Brahmin to bring him as quickly as possible.

As soon as the proper arrangements were made, Indredummun accompanied by a large retinue and all kinds of music began to ascend

to the Pagoda, while the sound of his great drums and other musical instruments, which was heard twelve leagues off (forty eight English miles) made the whole mountain to shake, and the heavens to echo, while the grand procession moved so slow that it did not arrive on the top of the hill before sun-set. Indredumun judged it proper to order the whole retinue to encamp at some distance from the Pagoda, and taking Yeagnia and the messengers along he entered the Pagoda. But on beholding the great governor of the world he immediately became enraptured, and with silent astonishment stood trembling before him.—Nilaachalapattie to Yeagnia.—“Perhaps the Rajah cannot behold my glorious aspect, but tell him he has no cause to be afraid.” After sometime the Rajah ventured to view the divine form; and expressed himself thus—“O God I am an ignorant sinner and cannot speak unto thee. Thy two favourites * who continually minister before thee are not able to shew forth thy praise; Bruma and all the gods cannot adore thee; how then can I perform the task? Be favorable unto me, forgive my sins, and behold me as thy son. To-day I have had the good fortune to enjoy heavenly bliss; and which all my generation will also obtain.”

Nilaachalapattie.—“O Indredumun, why do you weep? dry up your tears and be assured of my favor. I know your virtuous and pious acts, and the unreserved confidence which you repose in me. Let me know what you want—ask and I will bestow.”

The Rajah.—“O God by thy favor I have every thing I want, but I am grieved to behold the god of gods residing on the top of a mountain in the midst of an inaccessible forest, filled with wild beasts, and exposed to the burning rays of the sun. Besides, this lonesome place is not frequented by men, and cannot be considered as an agreeable abode. It is therefore my intention by divine permission to build a large city and a spacious temple in this place, where I and my family will wait upon thee, and enjoy every temporal and spiritual delight. This is all I desire, be pleased to gratify my wishes.”

Nilaachalapattie.—“O foolish man, how can you give temples and cities and splendid entertainments to me? Every person is indebted to me; I do not want these things. As this retired place is unfrequented by men it is the more agreeable to me; for I can ascend to Vyknutam † and descend to this world at any time without being seen. But as this sacred

place has been now discovered, it is my intention to leave it and return to heaven; for as the Kali Yug is about to commence it will be frequented by a depraved race of men.*

Indredumun (weeping).—“O god, I have travelled two years, and passed through much trouble to obtain this interview; but now, when I express my inclination to engage in thy service thou art pleased to communicate thy intention of leaving the world—be pleased to reveal thy pleasure concerning thy servant.”

Nilaachalapattie.—“I will carry you to heaven; will you come?”

The Rajah.—“I am not acquainted with the inhabitants and the mysteries of heaven. Besides, it is my desire to remain in this world a while longer, that I may serve thee and publish among men what I have now seen and heard. It is my wish, however, that I may be carried to heaven, soul and body whenever I desire to leave the world.”

Nilaachalapattie.—“If it be so, build a temple in this place without delay, for after sometime has elapsed, the sea, at midnight, will be greatly agitated, and make a most dreadful noise, and throw on shore beams of an enormous size, which it will be unable to bear. These will be of a red colour, and if touched by any person, blood will flow from them; consider them however as the *Treemoochtee*; and when they arrive, go to Bruma and implore his aid; he will come and set them up in the temple, and name them Jagnakuloo, Subattra and Balaramaswamy. This is the *Bouddh-avatar*.†

“After the usual ceremonies are performed, and food daily offered to these gods, the gods and men of all places will assemble together and all eat out of the same vessel without doing injury to the various castes; and thus enjoy every temporal and spiritual delight. You are therefore to address your prayers to the *Treemoochtee*: and as they will in future govern the world, you are to place the same confidence in them as you have done in me, for we are one; and whenever you desire to leave this world, your soul and body will be carried to heaven.”

Nilaachalapattie having charged the Rajah to act agreeably to his instructions, he prepared to depart; but Yeagnia immediately drew near, bathed in tears, and expressed himself thus: O god, deign to declare thy pleasure concerning thy servant. I have no inclination to remain longer in this world; nor am

* See *Asiat. Res.* Vol. ii. p. 144.

† “The most orthodox Brahmins consider Bouddah himself as an incarnation of Vishnu.” See *Asiatic Researches*, Vol. ii. p. 120-125, Lon. edit.

* These are said to be two of Vishnu's attendants or confidants. Others call them his porters.

† Vishnu's paradise.

I able to bear the troubles and afflictions of life; I therefore wish to accompany thee to heaven."

Nilachalapattie.—" You promised to wed the young person who first conducted you to this sacred place, and also swore in my presence to perform your engagement. Besides, if you were to deceive this person who so highly esteems you and trusts your word, it would be a great affliction to her, a great dis-honor to me who witnessed transaction, and a great loss to yourself, for after acting so deceitfully you could not expect to obtain heavenly felicity. Perform your promise; marry this young woman; enjoy health and happiness with your family; and after some years you will both be taken to heaven without dying."

Yagna.—" O God I do not know to what caste these people belong; nor can I tell whether they will be recognized as persons belonging to the sacred order. Besides, after thy departure, I know not how I can support myself and family in this uncultivated and uninhabited forest; favorably be pleased to advise me how I shall act."

Nilachalapattie sat down and settled every thing between Yagna and his own servants, respecting caste, relationship, the marriage, &c. and after the usual rites and ceremonies of the sacred order had been performed in his presence, he addressed them as follows " Indredummun is about to build a large temple in this place, in which Jagnaikuloo will afterwards reside; it is therefore my pleasure that you always serve that god, and prepare meat offerings for him. And as you will consequently become the inhabitants of these districts, let it be publicly known in all countries that you are the Voddi Brahamins. This is your employment, the way you are to be supported, and the way by which you will obtain temporal and spiritual delight." He then delivered them over to the Rajah; and while taking an affectionate leave of each of them, showers of flowers rained down among them, and the music of heaven saluted their ears.

Yasakinnira, Kimpurshha, Garuda-gandrya, and Lidvididarluoo descended from heaven * to wait upon him, accompanied by Tumbura and Navadu, † with Souka, Sounaka and other great munies who came to celebrate his praise; and Bruma accompanied by Indra and the other gods appeared with the sacred car, to conduct him to heaven. Thus in the most splendid and magnificent manner he left the highly favored spot.

[To be concluded in our next.]

* See Kindersley's Hindoo Literature p. 31.

† Heavenly musicians.

ON THE CHINESE LANGUAGE AND CHARACTER.

Every medium through which we exhibit any thing to another's contemplation is either derived from *natural attributes* (or objects) and then it is an *IMITATION*; or else from *accidents quite arbitrary*, and then it is a *SYMBOL*.

Harris's Hermes, p. 330.

We have many inducements to desire information on the literature and language of China. They have been described in terms so hyperbolical; the riches they have been supposed to contain have been so highly estimated, the real character and history of the Chinese people, so far as we are acquainted with them are so extraordinary, that in combination with other circumstances of the times, they form most powerful considerations, and may be allowed to influence our minds very strongly. A language without a grammar, yet carefully collected and strictly arranged in dictionaries; a system of characters, but without an alphabet, yet adequate to the maintenance of correspondence, to the recording of events, to philosophical disquisitions, and to political regulations, is an object powerfully calculated to excite curiosity;—we are almost led at the first mention of it, to question the accuracy of such a report. It is, nevertheless, true. To add to our embarrassment, rumour has described the acquisition of this language as the labour of a life; has multiplied the characters it employs in conveying ideas, almost to infinity; has said that three or four thousand of them express but a single thought; and that after all, in perspicuity it is extremely defective, and in power extremely feeble.

Since this article has been in preparation, another reason unhappily forces itself on our notice. The source from whence our information is drawn, is Dr. Marshman's Introduction to his Translation of Confucius,—the types of which work, were consumed, with others, in the late lamentable conflagration at Serampore.* Perhaps, therefore, the volume may not be printed again: and the account we give of it may resemble that by which we distinguish a foreign curiosity: it may be described, but not seen.

Dr. M.'s work is entitled " Dissertation on the Characters and Sounds of the Chinese Language: including Tables of the elementary Characters, and of the Chinese Monosyllables." The characters are the language; and in their construction we discern a powerful reason for placing the literary department as the first in the state; and in this distinction of the literary department, we further discern a principal cause of that perpetuity which distinguishes China, and of that si-

* Compare Panorama, Vol. XH. p. 630.

milarity, almost amounting to identity, which pervades the whole of that extensive empire.

Letters are symbols of sounds; several letters in combination form a syllable, and syllables form words. It is probable, that the original language of man, included but few words;—that of those words the greater part were restricted to very few syllables; and— that the syllables were of the simplest sounds. The choice of sounds to signify objects was partly imitative, therefore *compliant*; partly free, therefore *arbitrary*. In the instance of names given to animals, no man could describe a bull by the term *baa*; nor a sheep by the term *moa*, or *loo*, or *boo*. The voices of birds also could not, without perverse intention, be misapplied; *quack*, would denote a duck; and *coo* a dove. But objects which had no voice, a tree, a mountain, a field, a river, the sun, the moon, clouds, &c. must be named arbitrarily, if named at all; since there is no natural power in the terms *tree*, or *mountain* to express those objects, exclusively; and the terms would be equally intelligible if custom had substituted the one for the other.

But characters may be at least equally expressive, and perhaps less exposed to mistake, if instead of being arbitrary they be imitative; and if instead of being vocal imitations deduced through the medium of the ear, they be lineal representations deduced through the medium of the eye. The sun which has no voice, therefore does not come within the power of the sense of hearing, does, nevertheless, by its outline, come within the power of the sense of seeing; and whatever forms can be seen, may be imitated. We imitate this glorious orb, ourselves; *: but in the instance of the moon, we carry this principle of imitation to greater accuracy, and divide it, as it were, for that purpose, into four parts: new moon ☺; first quarter ☻; full moon ☽; last quarter ☻. No person who has learned the rudiments of this imitative symbolical language can mistake ☺ for ☽; or ☻ for ☻. The mind comprehends the information intended to be conveyed, through the medium of the eye, with at least equal certainty, as if it were conveyed through the ear. Stars also differ; a star with eight rays ☻, with six rays *, with five rays ☻, with four rays ☻, these are distinct and different symbols; and denote distinct and different objects.

We mark the planets differently; the signs of the Zodiac, differently; metals differently; their chemical combinations differently: but these marks are arbitrary. We mark the sign of equality =, of multiplication ×, of addition +, of subtraction, or division —: these marks also are arbitrary; but they are perfectly intelligible. They can be read by those accustomed to them, with as much ease

and certainty as the words *multiply*, *add*, *subtract*, *divide*. We might enlarge this argument, by additional instances; but, these are sufficient to shew that the rudiments of symbolic language are really in use among us;—they have been further applied in those vulgar specimens of the art of engraving called "hieroglyphical epistles," and with the utmost possible brevity in the notes of honour not uncommon in money matters, between friends,

"I. O. U.—£20."

That mode of instruction which we sometimes use, the Chinese use *solely*; they have founded their whole language on what we have accepted very partially; and what is restricted within narrow limitation by Europeans, the Chinese have multiplied, diversified, and perpetuated.

The most remarkable particular in the formation of the Chinese characters is the absence of all circular or orbicular marks, or parts of lines. Their characters are composed entirely of straight lines: and the number of lines in a character proceeds gradually from one, two, four, &c. to *fifty two*! These forms are partly imitative, partly arbitrary. For instance, a level line — which signifies *one*, is imitative; to have expressed the idea of *one* by a multiplicity of strokes, would have been folly in the opinion of all men: *two* = — this is imitative also: so is | which imports *upright*; so is] which means *hooked*; so is <<< which signifies a river, a running stream; it is an imitation of the flowing waves; so is 匚 which imports a cavern, any thing *hanging over*; so is 匚 the ancient character for a country, which, with a cross in the middle, representing the division of the ground by tillage, or under tillage, signifies a *field*, a *cultivated country*. But, though these, with many others, be evidently representations, yet the greater part of the characters are arbitrary; at least to the present generation. This reserve appears to us proper; though Dr. Marshman abandons it; but, the changes that have taken place in the course of ages, say twenty or thirty centuries, are now completely untraceable; and therefore, we must not absolutely rely on what is, as the accurate representative of what was. In the character expressing a son, for instance, Dr. M. discerns no similitude; whereas, our humble imagination detects in it a figure bending in the act of obeisance: in the character for a daughter, Dr. M. is equally at a loss for any likeness; but we see in it a figure sitting cross-legged, which is a common attitude of repose for females in hot countries. The combination of these two characters into one, signifies *good*: i. e. the blessing of posterity.

The elementary characters are in number *two hundred and fourteen*: these the Chinese with great propriety call *Chec-moo*, MOTHER CHARACTERS: they take every variety of length, angle, and position of their formative lines: they enter into the composition of all the words in the Chinese language, and several of them are united in order to form other characters: some of which comprise as many as *eight* of these.

What we have said, by way of introduction, may allow us to dispense with any formal inquiry into the origin of these characters: we believe that imitation was the root of them generally; but when we consider what poor draughtsmen are the generality of mankind, what variations would occur in time from *haste*, from trepidation, from novelty, from desire of excellence, from the principle of combination, from authority of individual masters, and from opposite authorities; when we consider the changes made in alphabetical characters in the course of ages, actuated by what may be called *fusion*, we can indulge no wonder that the Chinese characters, those intended for delineations in eras long past, should now be unintelligible and untraceable as likenesses. They are at this time, to be regarded merely as *elementary* characters; the *ba*, *be*, *bi*, *bo*, *bu*, of the Chinese language. "They include the most remarkable objects of nature; as the sun, the moon, a river, a mountain, fire, water, earth, wood, stone, &c.; the principal parts of a house, as the roof, the door, as well as those utensils most frequently in use, as a knife, a spoon, (or chop-stick) a seat, a box, a staff, &c. Domestic animals also find a place here, as the goat, the cow, the horse, the dog, &c.; nor are the grand supports of life omitted, as grain, pulse, flesh, fish, &c. nor the primary relations of life, father, mother, son, daughter, however difficult to be represented.

"We find also among these not only a character to denote the body, but also one representing the soul, or spirit, as well as characters to represent certain articles of worship. From their placing among these elementary characters, the sword, the bow, the lance, the javelin, &c., we might be ready to suppose that the Chinese even at this early period, had been somewhat accustomed to war; and their admitting among them such as express art or skill, ornaments, needlework, a ship, &c., might lead us to imagine, that they were not at this time altogether ignorant of commerce and the arts.

"Qualities, though somewhat more difficult of representation, are not wholly omitted, although all among the elementary characters expressive of these, scarcely amount to thirty; among which will be found, however, such as most obviously strike the senses,

as straight, crooked, great, small, dark, white, high, long, wide, &c.

"The class expressing *actions*, is still smaller: a few however are admitted, as to see, to speak, to use, to walk, to run, to return, to stop, to enter, to follow, to move quickly, to lead, to arrive, &c."

Such are the rudiments of the imitative medium of communication, as invented, or adopted among the literati of China.

The proportion in which these elements enter the other characters, is a curious article of observation. We find that *choi*, grass, or vegetation in general, *soi*, water, and *mook*, wood, hold the first rank, the latter having 1232 characters into the formation of which it enters; *soi*, water, 1333; and *chou*, vegetation, no less than 1423. The next to these are the hand, 1012; the mouth, 983; the heart, 956. *Nee*, the element for a woman stands at the head of 834; while *yun*, that for a man, includes only 729; but *wy*, which denotes reptiles, has under it 804. After these follow *grin*, a word, 734; *kyum*, or *kyun*, gold 719. See, the character for silk, or any thing fine and delicate, and *chok*, a bamboo, that notable instrument of government among the Chinese, claim, each 672. *Yok*, flesh, *san*, a mountain, *mook*, the eye, and *chok*, the foot, include each somewhat more than 580 characters; as does *nieu*, the element expressive of a bird.

The elements which represent earth, stone, disease, clothing, jewels, contain each above 400 characters; as do *ma*, a horse; and *khin*, a dog; while *gut*, a day; *tou*, a knife; *chee*, a place; *mie*, rice; and *cheak*, motion, stand each at the head of somewhat more than three hundred. Thus *thirty* of these elements, expressive of the primary objects of sense, enter into the composition of more than 20,000 characters; which probably constitute the majority of the characters employed in the language.

Of these elements, however, *eighty-four* include no more, altogether, than 1427 characters.

Thus we find, on analysis, that the difficulty of becoming acquainted with the characters of this singular language, is greatly diminished, by the proper distribution of them, by orderly attention to them; and by a familiarity with the elementary keys. The combinations to which this system of symbols and characters gives occasion, are in many instances extremely curious. We repeat some of them from Dr. M.

The word *thi*, which denotes a *barber*, is composed of two characters, *tou*, the instrument or action of cutting, and *ty*, with respect. To burn, is composed of *fo*, the character for fire, and the character *mok*, wood, repeated, above it: now, certainly, fire under wood suggests strongly and clearly

enough, the idea of burning: the character *man*, to hear, consists of *moon*, a door, and *gnee*, the ear; *g. d.* the ear is a door; under which character its office is the admission of sounds.

The character for anger, *noo*, is formed of *nee*, a female, *yaou*, imitation, and *sun*, the heart; which seems to suggest, says Dr. M., the idea of their esteeming anger a feminine weakness. *Sung*, their character for a sage is composed of *gnee*, the ear, *hou*, the mouth, and *wong*, chief or lord: was this intended to suggest, that he alone is wise who governs his ear as well as his mouth? [We rather query whether it may not import "Lord of the mouth,"—he who speaks authoritatively,—also, "Lord of the ear,"—he who commands attention.] *Mun*, to ask, is composed of *moon*, a door, and *hou*, the mouth; *mun*, to hear, is composed of *moon*, a door, and *gnee*, the ear. *Chun*, to pass in and out, is formed of *moon*, a door, and *nee*, a female; this, says our author, surely could not suggest to the Chinese sages the idea of binding up the feet of their females from their birth, in order to incapacitate them for this motion in their riper years! [No: but if females dwelt in tents apart, as in Arabia, or in harems, as throughout the East, the idea of entering into a female's tent, only for a time, not to reside there, but, to come out again quickly, might be included in this character: *g. d.* the females' tent is a seclusion from us men; it is our *going in and coming out*.] *Gue*, to be grieved, displeased, or angry, formed by *sun*, the heart, and *tou*, a knife, placed above it, may perhaps allude to the pain occasioned by the sensation; but whether by forming *wong* crooked, perverse, from *wong* to reign, and *sun* the heart, they intended to intimate that the heart is perverted and corrupted by ambition, is perhaps difficult to determine; [rather, the reign of the heart,—the dominion of the imagination or uncontrolled affections,—is the cause of moral and practical crookedness, or perversity of life and manners.] Whether *chun*, to wipe, to cleanse, which is formed from *sou*, the hand, and *sun*, a servant, have a relation to the idea meant to be conveyed, the good ladies can best determine who have the superintendance of domestic concerns. These examples may give some insight into the formation of these symbolic characters: those which are wholly arbitrary, elude our powers of description. Of these Dr. M. thinks the majority of the compound characters consists.

But we must not take our leave of the subject, without directing our attention to the most remarkable of these characters, not so much from its signification, though that is emphatic, as from its composition,—that which contains in its formation FIFTY-TWO strokes; the highest number of which any

character in the Imperial Dictionary is composed. It ought, we presume, to be satisfied with a distinction so exalted; and had the determination of its import been referred to us, we should perhaps have directed it to signify *ambition*! The key of this character, says Dr. M., is *ee*, rain; underneath which is placed *tiem*, a field; these thus compounded, make *looi*, the character that denotes thunder; four of these thunders united, form the character *pung*, and this imports the noise which accompanies thunder that seems to rend the air. It is worth while to reverse the synthesis of this character, by re-stating that—*pung*, the thunder clap, is composed of *looi*, thunder, four times expressed; and that *looi* itself is composed of *tiem*, a field, and *ee*, rain. By this analytic process the memory is assisted, certainly; and by recollection of the right *key* word, the greater part of the characters in this language, may be so far understood with ease, as to enable a student to consult a dictionary for their more precise or extensive signification.

We presume that our readers would not wish to make more baste than good speed in the study of this singular combination of sounds, terms, and ideas; and therefore, we here close our first lesson on the elementary characters of the Chinese language.

Account of a Tribe called KROOMEN, inhabiting a small District of the Grain Coast of Africa, between Cape Mount and Cape Palmas. By the late THOMAS LUDLAM, Esq. formerly Governor of Sierra Leone, and one of the Commissioners of African Inquiry. Abstracted from the Report of the African Institution.

The district inhabited by the Kroomen, extends, according to the maps, about twenty miles along the coast, from north-west to south-east. Its extent inland is not accurately known, but it is supposed, from the best information not to exceed the same distance; and may, perhaps, fall considerably short of it: it cannot be great, as the Kroomen have no towns except on the sea coast. The Kroo country lies between $4^{\circ} 54'$ and $5^{\circ} 7'$ N. latitude. Fettra-Kroo, the principal town, is in long. $7^{\circ} 48'$ W.

The general aspect of the country is champaign, and it is very woody. It is free, however, from marshes. Its chief vegetable productions are rice, cassada, yams, plantaines, and Malaguetta pepper. The rice which it produces is valued by Europeans on account of its superior whiteness to what is in general to be met with on the Coast. The rivers which run through it do not appear to be large.

In the Kroo country there are but five

towns, viv. Little-kroo, which is the northernmost; then Settra-kroo, which is the chief town; Kroo-bah, Kroo-setra, and lastly, Wills-town.

The population of this small district is supposed to be greater than in most other countries on the Coast. No less than 800 Kroomen were estimated to be working as labourers at Sierra Leone in the year 1809; and Kroomen are to be found, though not in such large bodies, yet in considerable numbers, at every factory, nay at almost every village, in the intermediate space, which is an extent of 350 miles. Besides this, they are employed by all the vessels trading between Cape Mount and Cape Palmas, to carry on their trade, as factors and interpreters, and also to assist in the work of navigation, and particularly in manning boats.

The Kroomen who thus employ themselves, either as traders, sailors, or labourers, at a distance from home, are seldom less than fifteen years of age or more than forty. Those who remain at home are chiefly employed in agriculture, and a few in fishing. They rear also a few cattle. The land seems to form a common stock, and not to descend by inheritance. Each man settles, or rather cultivates, where he pleases. Agricultural labour is conducted chiefly by women, though sometimes by domestic slaves.

The commerce of the Kroomen is carried on entirely by barter. The articles which are in greatest demand among them are tobacco; cotton cloth of East India fabric; a few English shawls and handkerchiefs; hats; leather trunks; fire-arms; bar-iron, which they manufacture themselves into implements of husbandry; knives; &c.; and cowries, which are used in making their fetishes or amulets. In return for these articles, they sell a little ivory, palm-oil, Malagueta pepper, and rice, and occasionally supply ships with fire-wood, plantanes, cassada, and even with bullocks. They will sometimes row off in very small canoes to ships at a distance of four leagues from the shore, with not more of these articles than will procure for them a few leaves of tobacco, reckoning their toil and hazard as nothing. Their chief article of barter, however, is their labour, which they hire to Europeans. This is the source from which they derive by far the greater part of their imported commodities. They have long been the exclusive intermediate merchants, or rather factors, between the vessels trading on this part of the coast and the people of the interior; and while the Slave Trade flourished, this employment occupied a considerable number of hands. Since the abolition of that trade they have sought other lines of service.

The form of their government is monarchical; but it appears that the *old men* (the Aristocracy) of the country possess consider-

able influence, and that the power of the monarch is small, except when it is supported by their influence. Each town has a chief, whom they designate *King*, at least in conversing with Europeans; but there is one chief who is considered as superior to the rest, and who rules over the whole. The power, however, of the inferior chiefs seems to be very great in their own districts, and their power is probably hereditary. At the same time the children of the greatest chiefs work as labourers, while they are young men, in exactly the same manner as the lowest of the people: nor are they to be distinguished, on ordinary occasions, either by their dress, or by the superior respect which is paid to them.

I could not learn distinctly in what manner the chief authority was conveyed, whether by inheritance or otherwise.

A mourning, or *cry*, of seven days continuance, takes place on the death of a king; during which time it appears that all arrangements respecting the succession are made.

Kroomen of different towns have sometimes very serious quarrels. One took place lately between the people of Wills-town and those of one of the other towns. It originated in a private quarrel between two individuals, Tom Nuninee and Jumbo, the people of each town taking part with their townsman until it became an actual war between the two towns.

The Kroomen are seldom very tall; but they are well made, muscular, vigorous, and active. They wear no cloths, except a small piece of East-India cloth wrapped round their loins; but they are fond of obtaining hats and old woollen jackets, which they are allowed to wear in their own country in the rainy season. A few wear European clothing while at Sierra Leone. They are extremely sensible of the cold during the rainy season, but never appear to suffer from the heat. The form of the African head differs in general from that of the European; but I think this difference is less in the Kroomen than in any other natives whom I have seen. In their temper, they are generally gay and cheerful; and this leads them to be very noisy and talkative. They sometimes shew a talent for mimicry. They seldom learn to speak English well, and of course they must understand it but imperfectly; the few who do understand it, become, I think, more readily expert at whatever business they are employed in than most other natives. They are very fond of adopting English names; but their choice is sometimes very whimsical, such as Pipe of Tobacco, Bottle of Beer, Papaw Tree, &c. They are quick in feeling insults, or even harsh and angry expressions, and they immediately become sulky and untractable.—They are deliberate rather than impetuous; but they are far more courageous than the generality of the natives about Sierra Leone.

When hired by the month, their wages depending on the time they are at work, not upon the work performed, they are apt to be very indolent, unless carefully superintended. But they are fond of task work, or working by the piece; and exert themselves exceedingly when the reward is proportioned to the labour.

They seem to think, some kinds of work much more creditable than others. The washer women at Sierra Leone have lately employed their hired Kroomen in carrying home baskets of wet clothes from the brook. I have heard them grumble very much under their burdens, because "man was made to do woman's work;" nevertheless, as they gain money by it, they are disposed to put up with the indignity.

Their gains they convert carefully into such goods as are most valuable in their own country. In eighteen months or two years, a sufficient stock having been collected, the Krooman returns home with his wealth. A certain portion is given to the head men of the town; all his relations and friends partake of his bounty, if there be but a leaf of tobacco for each; his mother if living, has a handsome present. All this is done in order "to get him a name;" what remains is delivered to his father "to buy him a wife." One so liberal does not long want a partner: the father obtains a wife for him; and after a few months of ease and indulgence, he sets off afresh for Sierra Leone, or some of the factories on the coast, to get more money. By this time he is proud of being acquainted with "white man's fashion;" and takes with him some raw, inexperienced youngster, whom he initiates into his own profession, taking no small portion of the wages of the *elève* for his trouble. In due time his coffers are replenished; he returns home; confirms his former character for liberality; and gives the residue of his wealth to his father to "get him another wife." In this way he proceeds perhaps for ten or twelve years, or more, increasing the number of his wives, and establishing a great character among his countrymen; but scarcely a particle of his earnings is at any time applied to his own use. I have heard of one Krooman who had eighteen wives: twelve and fourteen I am told are not uncommon.

Theft is certainly not discreditable among them: their principal people are more than suspected of making their inferiors practice it, and sharing the gain. The inferior will often confess it when really innocent, and will readily bear the punishment, in order to conceal the true criminal.

Witchcraft they dread, and of course abhor: I believe it is the only offence which is unpardonable. They have the same implicit faith in fetishes, or amulets, as other heathen tribes: and the same belief of the agency of

invisible powers, under the direction of particular men. I believe it is very much by their pretensions to supernatural powers that the head men keep up their influence. Jumbo boasts of having two fetishes made expressly to operate on Europeans: one enables him to gain the favour of white men in general: the other guards him from the "palavers" which individuals might occasionally bring against him: nor are these charms without a real effect, through their power over the imagination.

One of the greatest drawbacks from the usefulness of the Kroomen, as hired labourers, at Sierra Leone, arises from their readiness rather to suffer in their own persons than to bear testimony against each other. The public punishment which our laws impose is far less feared than the sure and secret vengeance of the magician. The artifices by which they often escape in our courts of justice are deemed vain against invisible powers. Theft is punished in their own country exactly as it is in Sierra Leone: and if a man steal from them, they shew him little mercy. It is universally admitted, that if a Krooman were to learn to read and write, he would be put to death immediately. Distinction, respect, power, among his own countrymen, as soon as age permits it, are the objects of every Krooman; he is trained up in the habit of looking forward to these as to all, that is honourable or desirable; his life is spent in seeking them by the only means which the customs of his country allow: when possessed of them, every exertion is used to train others in the same principles, in order that he may keep and enjoy what he has acquired with so much labour.

I was struck when I first came to Africa with the different manner in which a Krooman and a Mandingo man (a Mohammedan) viewed an English clock. It was a new thing to both of them. The Krooman eyed it attentively for about a minute, but with an unmoved countenance, and then walked away to look at something else, without saying a word. The Mandingo man could not sufficiently admire the equal and constant motion of the pendulum; his attention was repeatedly drawn to it; he made all possible inquiries as to the cause of its motion; he renewed the subject next morning, and could hardly be persuaded that the pendulum had continued to "walk," as he called it, all night. But Kroomen are sufficiently acute and observant where the occasion calls their minds to action. I believe the chief amusement which prevails among the Kroomen is dancing. A Krooman will never sell a Krooman, nor allow him to be sold by others if he can prevent it. They go about every where, in slave ships and to slave factories, and are active agents in the Slave Trade, without any more apprehension of being sold themselves than if they were British mariners.

ON THE WINES OF THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE, THE MEANS OF IMPROVING THEM, AS DIRECTED BY THE GOVERNOR OF THE CAPE, BY PUBLIC ADVERTISEMENT; WITH HINTS FOR THE APPLICATION OF SIMILAR DIRECTIONS TO THE PRODUCTION OF BRITAIN.

Wine has hitherto been in Britain an article of import and consumption only; it has not like some foreign productions undergone in this island processes of manufacture, whereby its value has been greatly increased, or its powers highly exalted. Neither has Britain hitherto possessed a wine colony, the produce of which might render the mother country independent of foreign states. She has, as far as possible, acted on the principle of barter towards foreigners; and from those who willingly consumed the labours of her looms, she has, on her part, taken their wines, and other beverages.

But the convulsions among nations which it has been our lot to witness, have changed in many respects the alliances and reciprocal obligations of our country: some refuse to take her goods; it follows as a matter of course, that Britain no longer takes their wines!

Nevertheless, wine as a beverage, being among enjoyments which are not readily relinquished by those accustomed to them, it became a consideration for government to secure a supply; at least to a certain extent. For this purpose the island of Madeira, famous for its wines, is held by permission of the Portuguese government, under the protection of British troops; but as this must be given up when the proper time arrives, it is good policy to prepare another country, the produce of which may be substituted to advantage.

While Holland retained the shadow of independence, as a state, there was a possibility, to say nothing more, of her colonies, which she had lost by her connection with France, being restored, when peace should take place; but when by her incorporation with France she also became French, all her colonies followed the fate of those which were wrested by British power from the Gallic sway. There is no obligation on Britain to return any of those which her arms have conquered; but if there be some more than

others desirable to her from the circumstance of producing a variety, distinct from any natural to her former possessions, such as furnish or might furnish wine, form that distinction.

The West India Islands produce coffee and sugar; they are capable also of yielding spicks; but they do not, and probably never will, afford wine. The Cape of Good Hope, a colony formerly belonging to Holland, has long been cultivated in part, for that purpose. Some of her vineyards were even distinguished—as the Constantia, belonging to a farm of that name; and much of her territory might be rendered fit, under proper cultivation, for the growth of *good* wine. It already furnished a wine, consumed in the country; but the slovenly manner of proceeding in making it, deprived it of all chance of competing with better regulated productions in foreign markets. Where natural impediments, however, do not forbid, there is a hope, by adequate care of raising an article to a just estimation, abroad, as well as at home: and as in such cases the first thing to be done is, to reform old habits, the British government at the Cape, has determined to attempt this desirable reformation among its *quondam* Dutch subjects. The first open proceeding for this purpose, that has come to our knowledge, is the Advertisement, or Proclamation, or Advice, annexed. It is a proof of the interest taken by Britain in the prosperity of the country; and at the same time of her determination to retain Southern Africa, as her future wine colony; which it is not beyond hope may contribute to exclude the once fashionable wines of France. With wine, it may be expected, that Britain will derive a supply of brandy; and thus will her independence on France for those productions of the vine, be secured in perpetuity. This, however, is looking forward to a distant event;—we therefore suspend further observations on this contingency, and direct our attention to a more immediate, and more domestic subject.

Our readers will learn with pleasure, that the premium proposed at Edinburgh in favour of the best home-made wines has had the effect of calling out at least *thirty* specimens, as claimants for this honourable distinction.

These must have been made some time ago; when there was no thought of their being put in competition with others: we may, therefore naturally expect, that after

the declaration, and adjudication of such a reward, a much greater number of attempts will be stimulated into excellence. If mere good-housewifery has already induced so many persons to direct their attention toward a domestic supply of vinous beverage as to furnish thirty selections, there can be no doubt, but what, hereafter, some fortunate adventurer will obtain, with a premium, a reputation that will establish his operations on a large scale for the purpose of supplying a public and national demand.

What can be done beyond the Tweed, may certainly be accomplished to advantage in more southerly latitudes; if management be the principal cause of excellence, that will not long be restricted to one part of our country; if production be the basis,—whatever Scotland produces may be expected, without inferiority, in England.

Under this conviction, we desire to call the attention of our readers to the directions given by the governor at the Cape of Good Hope, for the purpose of improving the wines of that colony. They may be useful among ourselves.

The first remark concerns *the space occupied by the bearing plants*. We recommend to all those who desire to obtain *good wine*, to examine whether their currant bushes,—or any other fruit bearers,—intended for the purpose, do not stand *too near each other*; or perhaps too near some other tree, of a succulent, juicy, or moist nature. This may seem to be economy; but it will never be the means of obtaining the premium. And this is of greater importance than it may at first sight be thought; especially to persons about to establish extensive nurseries of similar fruit-trees. We know, for instance, that in one single plantation, in Worcestershire, executed in the present year, the amount of currant trees planted, exceeded **THIRTY THOUSAND**. This is attempted avowedly for the purpose of obtaining British wines for public supply; and for equalising the production of foreign vineyards. It must be evident, that the distance at which these are placed is of great importance to success: the apparent saving of a few feet per acre,—or a few inches per tree, may eventually prove fatal to the whole undertaking.

The second remark we desire to enforce, is, **the SELECTION OF THE FRUIT**, after ga-

thering. We have every reason to believe that carelessness on this point is a frequent failing among our makers of home-made wines. If it were possible that they could witness the assiduity in this particular, among the most famous wine growers of France, they would never afterwards think much of a due attention to the same circumstance on their own parts. It is, in fact, more necessary in our cooler climate, than it is abroad; but this necessity has little influence on the conduct of those who hitherto have intended their liquors for their own families chiefly; and for what may be designated comparatively immediate consumption. But, when the perfection of the wine, with the recollection of the qualities requisite to ensure its attaining maturity, after a due age, are admitted into their contemplation, they will perceive the propriety of this maxim without further enlargement.

The *SORTING of the wines* afterwards, with the judgment formed on each quality, we have no occasion to discuss at present. It is sufficient, that we have called the public mind to the proper mode of attempting this undertaking;—that we have given notice of a new branch of traffic rising among us, and deserving popular encouragement; a branch free to all, and, where suitable to soil, exposure, &c. requiring but one considerable advance of capital:—and further, a branch capable of being extended to an amount at present scarcely to be estimated. But, if this article does nothing more than furnish a hint to be improved by the talents and experience of our British housewives, who prepare for domestic consumption a pleasant, wholesome, and even, in some cases, a salutary, and medicinal beverage, we shall think our attention has been well bestowed, and our obligations not small to his excellency the governor of the Cape of Good Hope, whose directions we now proceed to submit to our readers.

GOVERNMENT ADVERTISEMENT.

His excellency the governor, feeling an anxious wish to promote the welfare of the colony by every means in his power, and viewing the extension of the wine trade, as offering such permanent advantages to its inhabitants, considers it his duty, to call upon the wine grower, as well as the merchant exporter, to lend him their assistance towards the improvement of so valuable a branch of commerce.

When the present state of the wine growing countries in Europe is considered; the difficulty of procuring the wines of France; and that the cultivation of the grape in Portugal and Spain, is, from a state of warfare, in a great degree abandoned:—the present moment is most favorable to the introduction of Cape wines into general use. But this is not to be accomplished with effect, without the total abandonment of the present system, conducted as it is under false principles, and full of error throughout.

Although it is admitted, that the wines of the Cape have materially improved within a few years past, it is equally true, that much remains to be done, before they can support a competition with those of other countries, not so favored either in climate or soil.

The island of Madeira appears to offer the best model for imitation. The climate as well as the nature of the soil, bears a great similitude to those of the Cape; and, viewing the high state of perfection to which Madeira wine has been carried, we are bound to pay deference to the system pursued in that island and adopt it at the Cape, as far as local circumstances will admit.

His excellency, in pursuance of his intentions, has collected the following heads of information, which he recommends to the most serious consideration of the wine farmers and merchants of this colony; and at the same time, declares his intention of giving them effect, by granting such premiums, and adopting such regulations, as may be found best adapted to meet the object in view.

1. The vines in this colony are too thickly planted. In the future formation of vineyards, it is recommended, that the vines shall be planted four feet deep, and in rows, at a distance of six feet from each other, leaving a space of four feet between each row. As soon as they begin to bear fruit, or at the end of the third year, they should be led or trained, in the manner of Espaliers, along a rail work, formed of upright posts, of the hard wood of the country, six feet apart, and four feet above ground, crossed by two rows of the Bamboo, or Spanish reed, the lower one two feet from the earth. The object which will be attained by this simple mode, is, an increase of, and a superior quality of fruit, as well as the prevention of the baneful influence of the earth upon the grape, which cannot be too much guarded against. The farmer will also perceive, that the destructive tendency of the south east winds, is considered in limiting the height of the frame to four feet. The expence of the railing described, will be comparatively inconsiderable to the advantage derived. The Bamboo and Spanish reed will thrive in most parts of the colony, and the rush of the country will be

found sufficiently strong to bind the whole together.

2. Much of what has been recommended in the last article, will apply to the vineyards now in bearing. The materials for the rail-work may be prepared, and ready to put up in July and August next, when the general pruning of the vineyards takes place; and then it will be for the farmer, to select the strong healthy shoots for training, taking care not to leave too many eyes to each. At this period, the earth should be well dug up about the vines, and manure applied. The vineyard, during the spring and summer, should be kept free from grass and weeds.

3. The proprietors of vineyards, now in bearing, and who may be wise enough to lead their vines, as recommended, would do well to remove every second vine, which will give the distance of six feet between each, and a space of three feet between every row. They may be assured, the remaining vines will yield a more abundant crop and fruit of a superior quality.

4. From the period at which the fruit is fully formed, until it is fit for the press, it should be the constant care of the farmer, to remove from time to time the shoots that may be thrown out, as well as such leaves as may obstruct the rays of the sun from fairly acting on the fruit. The full influence of the sun is essentially necessary towards bringing the bunch of grapes to perfect and uniform maturity, and, if prevented, deprives the wine of its great keeping property, and imparts to it a roughness and acidity, that no ulterior treatment can entirely remove.

5. At picking time, all rotten or damaged grapes should be rejected, and great care taken that none is pressed before they are perfectly ripe. The stock of the grape should not be allowed to ferment with the must, but after pressing, and before fermentation commences, be carefully separated with a rake. The grapes should be pressed out by men's feet. The men enter the press as soon as filled, (the greater the quantity it contains the better), and should be succeeded by others until there is a strong appearance of fermentation. The juice is then left to ferment without molestation, until the skins, &c. begin to subside. It is then carefully drawn off, and transported to the merchant in Cape Town, or put into vats, leaving room for further fermentation. In the latter case, too much care cannot be taken in cleaning and scraping out the vats for use; washing them out with brandy is a good practice.

6. The restriction hitherto imposed upon the farmer of keeping his wine for six months after vintage, is removed, and he is permitted to send it to Cape town as soon after it has fairly passed the first fermentation, as suits his convenience. This mea-

sure will relieve the present farmers from the heavy expence of providing a large establishment of casks, and enable those possessing lesser means to become growers of vines.

7. The farmer is now supposed to have done his duty, and the wine in the possession of the merchant, to whom we are to look for its further improvement. By existing regulations, he will have the wine in his possession at least sixteen months, which will afford ample scope for the exercise of his ingenuity and talents, in classing, or (as it is generally termed) *lotting* the wines as he receives them from the country, with a view of giving equability of quality, and a marked character to the wines of this settlement, which appears never to have been studied, and has operated as one of the leading objections to their use. This part of the process is paid much attention to in the wine countries of Europe, because the merchant is aware, that no two vineyards, be they ever so contiguous, will produce exactly the same flavoured wines.

8. The vats being clean and carefully prepared for the reception of the wine, brandy, in the proportion of five gallons for every leager, may be put into each, observing to be particularly careful, that the brandy is pure and free from any taste of smoke or defect, which it will for ever impart to the wine. The wine should be racked off at least twice, during the sixteen months; in the last of these operations, a more minute classing may be made, and a farther addition of brandy given in the proportion of three gallons to the Leager.

8. During the several processes stated in the last article, the merchant should separate his wine into four different qualities, *viz.* inferior, good, better, best. If he has a general lot of wine to ship, he takes an equal proportion, $\frac{1}{4}$ from each kind. If a lot of 2d best quality, $\frac{1}{2}$ best, $\frac{1}{4}$ better, $\frac{1}{4}$ of good, $\frac{1}{2}$ of inferior. For a superior lot, inferior is left out, and $\frac{1}{2}$ good, better and best is given. The lotting of wines, thus described, is followed both in Portugal and Madeira, and gives one cause why the wines of these countries are so accurately characterized.

10. After the 1st January, 1813, the wines of the Cape will be shipped in pipes, (containing 110 gallons each), half pipes and quarter casks, such as are made use of at Madeira. They will be less expensive, and stow much better on board ship than the casks at present in use. The farmer is permitted to continue the use of the leager.

11. The following are the medals which His Excellency proposes to grant as an honorary badge to such individuals, whether farmer or merchant, as will afford their assistance to improve the cultivation of the grape, or the manufacture of wine in this settlement.

VOL. XII. [Lit. Pan. Nov. 1812.]

A gold medal, value 300 rds. to the farmer who will lead the greatest number of the vines (not less than two thousand) now in bearing, in the manner described in the first paragraph, by 1st September next.

A gold medal, value 300 rds. to the farmer who plants the greatest number of new vines, (not less than two thousand), in the manner described in the 1st paragraph, and of that species of vine *only*, from which is produced the Cape Madeira, by 1st September next.

A gold medal, value 150 rds. to the farmer who sends into Cape Town, before the 1st January, 1813, the largest quantity of Cape Madeira, and of the most approved quality, and uniformity in flavour.

A gold medal, value 100 rds. to the farmer who sends into Cape Town, before the 1st January, 1813, Cape Madeira of the most approved quality, and uniform flavour, not less than five leagers.

A gold medal value 100 rds. to the farmer or merchant, who will produce a sample of wine considered to come nearest in flavour to real Madeira, and of which he possesses not less than five leagers, by 1st January, 1813.

A gold medal, value 300 rds. to the wine merchant, who will produce the best certificate of the superior quality of wine, shipped by him, (not less than fifty leagers), from any Foreign market, within the space of fifteen months after shipment. The certificate must be signed by three respectable merchants, and correspond with the ship's manifest, that it may be compared with the Custom House and Wine Taster's Books.

It would be exceedingly gratifying to His Excellency, if the competitors for the last medal, would direct samples of the wines exported by them, to be returned, by comparing which, with those lodged in the Wine Taster's Office, the government will be able to ascertain the effect produced by crossing the Atlantic or Indian Seas.

Castle of Good Hope, 14 Feb. 1812.

By Command of His Excellency
the Governor.

(Signed) H. ALEXANDER, Secr.

The Wine Taster's office has been opened according to the governor's directions: a specification is required, stating "the name of the owner; the place where, and the time when, the wine was made; from what grape; and to whom consigned." A fee of two rixdollars per leager is paid for all wines required to be tasted. The wine contrasted for, for the use of the army, must be "no less than two years old."

The importers of wines, and the dealers in that article will naturally pay attention to this attempt to improve the wines of the Cape of Good Hope. Hitherto little reputation has

been attached to them. The causes of their discredit, are explicitly stated by the governor. This being an article of commerce, nothing further need be said by us to those whom it concerns: we hope, in time, to see this endeavour crowned with success; and wine, the production of British colonists, meet a deserved and general preference.

THE GATHERER.

No. XXXV.

I am but a *Gatherer* and Disposer of other Men's Stuff.—*Wooton.*

Antiquary error: or double ground spectacles in default.

Felix quem faciunt aliena pericula cautum.

Mr. Ives, in his History of the Garionum of the Romans, between Caister and Burgh, in Suffolk, has strangely misread an inscription which he informs is extant in the neighbourhood. His words are,

"Upon the balk of a kitchen, in a small farm-house in this parish, is cut the following inscription. The words are in one line, and continued the whole length of the balk, with spaces between the fourth and seventh words: the letters are in relief. The inscription is as singular as the accident it commemorates. I read it thus,

"*Bis acuad atin denuo reedificatur—
Tyrce brent aforne is bylt agean by Robert
Thorne the Parson 1348—62.*"

"Robert Thorne, the parson, for the benefit of the rude forefathers of the village, has told us—!! in plain English, that this house was twice burnt, and he had rebuilt it. In attempting to say the same in Latin, he has strangely bewildered himself. The two words *acuad* and *atin* can be derived from nothing but the verb *acuo* [applied to fire, to quicken, or stir up, or increase] and the adjective *ater*, and then the sense is mysterious and obscure; but the good Rector had probably received his education in a cloister; and mean as his abilities appear to us, they were far from contemptible in his time. The word following the date, with the figures 62, I am unable to explain, but I imagine it to be the rebuild'st age."

After this severe censure by the learned modern on the ignorant ancient, what will our readers think when informed that this new acceptation of *acuad* and *atin*, and *acuo*, in the sense of fire-stirring, is wholly of this antiquary's fabrication? The inscription is truly thus

Bis tremabatur denus reedificatur.

Tyrce brent aforne is bylt agean by Robert Thorne, the pa... 154. Eddi. 6. 2.

The verses are evidently a jingle. *Tremabatur* is regular Latin for a smouldering heap of

ruins; and the date is 1548: the second year of Edward VI. So that it is more recent by two hundred years than Mr. Ives supposed; and consequently all his severity on cloister education is misplaced.

The person who had twice built his residence, after its conflagration, had a good right to commemorate his mishap and his beneficence.

The dangerous Cabalist: or the Jew much more than a match for Christians. A story from the modern Hebrew.

—*Credat Iudeus Apella.*

A mysterious circumstance occurred about the time of old Mr. Goldsmid's death, in 1781, that occasioned much talk among the Jewish people at the time, and is not yet forgot by many. A little before that event died a cabalistical Jewish doctor, named De Falk, a man of universal acquaintance, singular manners, and wonderful talents, which seemed bordering on supernatural agency. He had made his will, and appointed Mr. Aaron Goldsmid one of his executors and Mr. De Symons the other. Among other items, he left a packet of papers carefully sealed, in the care of the first gentleman, to be securely treasured up, but never to be opened, nor looked into, on the severest injunction, as such an attempt to discover their contents would be peremptorily attended with fatal consequences to the person who opened it; whereas, on the contrary, if carefully preserved, himself and family would be highly prosperous in their undertakings.

This divine, for as such he may be considered, had kept a private synagogue in his house in Wellclose Square, and exercised most surprising benevolence. Curiosity, though the most impulsive power acting on the human mind, was long resisted by Mr. Goldsmid's resolution to keep this secret deposit inviolable; but at last he yielded to the silly desire of investigating the contents of one packet; his death ensued the same day, and threw the family into the greatest consternation. The fatal paper was found covered with cabalistical figures and hieroglyphics. The remainder of the papers were secured by the family, who placed them in a privacy where they are not likely to be disturbed.—A few anecdotes of this extraordinary person, as current among his nation are amusing.

Mr. De Falk, at Mr. Goldsmid's table, one day, received an invitation to call on a gentleman who resided in the Chapter House, in St. Paul's Church Yard, for the purpose of conversation with him in a friendly way, on a curious subject. "But," says the gentleman, "when will you come?" on which De F. pulled out a small piece of wax candle

from his pocket, and giving it to him, said, "Light this up, Sir, when you get home, and I shall be with you as soon as it goes out."

The next morning the gentleman lighted this bit of candle, which seemed to possess the virtue of the ancient sepulchral lamps, that were found burning after being buried during many centuries: for he watched it all day, and at night did not find it in the least lessened from what it appeared to be when he first took it. He then removed it to a closet where it might be out of the way; observing it now and then, expecting its going out, and Mr. De Falk to arrive that minute.

Upwards of three weeks elapsed, and the *inch* of candle was still burning in the morning of the day on which De Falk called in the evening in a hackney coach, and surprised the gentleman, who had at the time given over all hopes of seeing him, as the candle shewed no signs of diminution, but kept burning as brightly as at first.

As soon as mutual civilities were over, the gentleman went up stairs to look at his candle in the closet, and to his utter surprise found it gone, as well as the stick it stood in. When he returned to Mr. De Falk, he expressed his astonishment, and inquired whether the agent that had removed it would return the candlestick? "O yes," replied De Falk, "you have it now in the kitchen below." It was found under the dresser.

The quantity of money this Mr. De Falk possessed at times was surprising; yet on other occasions he was so necessitous, as to be obliged to pawn his plate. When this was the case, Mr. Benjamin Bunn's shop in Houndsditch was constantly resorted to; but it sometimes happened that the articles found their way back to the owner, before the premium and interest were paid, as in the following instance, which is well remembered.

Having left a considerable quantity of plate with this convenient neighbour, he called sometime after with the duplicate and the money exactly reckoned, and putting it on the counter, told them to save themselves the trouble of going up stairs, as he had received the plate back, and they had it not then in their possession. This they found to be the truth; while nothing belonging to other people was deranged by the transposition.

Once when a fire in Duke's Place was fiercely raging, and the synagogue was considered in very great danger of being burnt. He came on being applied to for advice and assistance, on this distressing occasion; when he only wrote *four Hebrew letters* on the pillars of the door, and the wind immediately changing, the synagogue was saved; and

the fire subsiding directly, was happily got under without further considerable damage.

His advice was sought for on all difficult emergencies, and he was seldom unsuccessful in removing the obstacles that lay in the way of his consultors. Many to this day have reason to bless his memory, not only for his advice, but for the liberal and permanent donations he has left, which are dispensed now by Mr. De Symons, the surviving executor.

* * * The four letters written by this cabalistic doctor on the door of the synagogue allude to the name of Jehovah, or the Lord; the right manner of pronouncing which, say the Jews, is lost; but if any possessed it, he might move heaven and earth.—The belief of this power is so strong among them, that if they considered De Falk as possessing it, what is related of his proceedings bears no assignable proportion to what they would believe of his abilities.

Extraordinary Power of Imagination.

"During our stay at the Dardanelles, we lived in the house of the Neapolitan Consul. This respectable old man put in force a stratagem which may serve to show the extraordinary power of imagination over diseases of the body. Being troubled with an intermitting fever, brought on during our excursion in Troas, I had been observed by him to go frequently to a clock in the anti-chamber of our apartment, watching for the hour when the paroxysm began. This used to occur exactly at noon. One morning he put back the clock a full hour. At twelve, therefore, I had no fear of my fever, for the index pointed to eleven; and at one, although the hour seemed to be present, the paroxysm did not take place. Unfortunately pleased by the success of his experiment, he told me what had happened; and after the usual interval the fever again returned. By the same manner, all the charms used among the lower order of people in this country operate in the cure of agues. The Tomb of Protesilaus, as related by Philostratus [in *Heroicus*.—See also Chandler's *Ilium*, p. 142], was anciently resorted to in healing a quartan fever."—Clarke's *Travels*, part ii. sect. i. p. 173.

Curious Will

The following is given as a correct copy of the will of the late Mr. Joshua West, the Poet, of the Six Clerks Office, Chancery Lane, dated the 13th of December, 1804:—

Perhaps I die not worth a groat!

But, should I die worth something more,
Then I give that—and my best coat,

And all my manuscripts in store,

To those who shall the goodness have
 To cause my poor remains to rest
 Within a decent shell and grave ;
 This is the will of
 Witnessed R. Mills }
 J. A. Berry } JOSHUA WEST.
 John Baines }

Mr. West died possessed of decent property, and some valuable manuscripts, which were conveyed by the above will to the person who fulfilled the modest conditions of it.

On the Fate of the ancient Ark of the Covenant, formerly in the Temple at Jerusalem.

It was lately proposed to the Rabbis of Germany in the *Annals of Literature* of Vienna, to shew, from their traditions, what became of the Ark of the Covenant, at the destruction of the Temple at Jerusalem.

M. Benoit Jeiteles, a learned Jew of Prague, endeavoured to solve this question, by stating that, "according to the tradition of the Rabbis Eliezer and Simeon, sons of Jochai, the ark was carried off at the first destruction of Jerusalem, to Babylon ; where it remained, with the tables of the law ; and was not restored at the rebuilding of the sacred edifice."

This tradition has been strongly opposed. A more popular tradition affirms that the ark was placed by order of King Josiah in a vault in the temple, by way of prevention from the ravages of the future conqueror : and has not been since discovered. This vault was afterwards used under the second temple, for receiving the wood destined to the altar : for which reason this place was enumerated as one of the fourteen before which all passengers made an obeisance.

Many writers speak of the holiness of this place, and the punishment of those who in later times attempted to dig into it.

Ancient authors are not agreed on the reasons which influenced Josiah to conceal this sacred implement nearly fifty years before the conquest of Jerusalem. Some say he foresaw that calamity, others say, he was advised by the prophet Jeremiah.

Maimonides (I. ad Chasaka, sect. IV. part 3, parag. 1, Hilchoth Bethahshir), with various others, affirm that this vault was originally prepared for this purpose by Solomon ; because his wisdom fore saw the destruction of the temple ; as Josiah also did, and therefore fulfilled Solomon's intention.

The prevailing opinion therefore is, that the holy ark was saved before the destruction of the temple : that it did not fall into the hands of the conqueror ; and that it was not in the second temple.

OBSERVANDA EXTERNA.

AMERICA, SOUTH.

Cotton Mills at Work.—Brazil. Letters from Brazil announce the establishment of several cotton manufactories in that country ; they add that the machines procured for this purpose have been employed with greater success than in North America.

AUSTRIA.

List of Journals and Newspapers published in the Austrian Dominions ; with succinct characters of them, and estimates of the numbers circulated by them, for 1810.

The number of Journals, political and economical published in the Austrian dominions for the year 1810, was twenty-five. The character of each of these, with the number printed of it, furnishes some light on the habit and general disposition of the people among whom it circulates ;—always remembering that the freedom of the press as understood among ourselves, is a blessing unknown to the countries in question.

I. PAPERS IN THE GERMAN LANGUAGE.

1. *The Vienna Gazette.*—This publication is by authority ; but for articles not of a political or public nature, though authentic, it is but demi official. The London Gazette is wholly official ; whence our countrymen find some difficulty in forming an idea of an authorized publication, the contents of which are not in all its departments furnished by Government. The Vienna Gazette is the property of the family of Van Gehlen, who have been the patentees of it for many years ; for this privilege they pay to Government the sum of 26,000 florins. The number printed of this paper is nearly 4,000 copies. It is published twice a week ; Wednesdays and Saturdays.

2. *Notices of Vienna*, published from the Office of Information for that city.

3. *Price current of Bank bills, and Course of Exchange at Vienna.*

4. *The Presburgh Gazette.*—This is properly speaking a Gazette for the Kingdom of Hungary : but this paper is chiefly in repute for news relating to Turkey, which it always obtains at the earliest period possible, and from the first hand. Not less than 5,000 copies are printed of it. The editor is M. Felix Schmid of Presburgh ; the printer is M. Landerer de Fuskut. This Gazette has existed about 48 years.

5. *The Gazette of Pesth and Offen.*—This is conducted with great attention to moderation, to general literature, taste, and science, by M. Roesler. 3,000 copies are printed.

6. *The Gazette of Gratz*, published by M. M. de Leilner and Wash; of which 2,500 copies are printed. Every Saturday a Supplement is added containing articles of geography, statistics, history, domestic economy, &c. with critiques on various works, also on the theatre, as conducted at Gratz, &c. &c.

7. *The German Gazette*, published by the Post Office at Prague. This paper appears three times a week, and has been established about thirty years: it sells about 1,300 copies; with Supplements, consisting of from one sheet to three sheets. The editor is M. Thomas de Schoenfeld.

8. *The Gazette of Brunn*, accompanied by lists of works announced for publication, &c. Conducted by M. Zeitman.

9. *The Salzburg Gazette*.—This paper dates so early as 1704 or 1706. It has, however, frequently changed its plan, and its title; and now prints 300 copies. The present conductor is M. Pillwein. From time to time are added Supplements containing historical and geographical notices of the country around Salzburg, with such other articles as the editor deems interesting.

10. At Hermannstadt in Transylvania has been published ever since 1784, weekly, a newspaper under the title of *the Transylvanian Messenger*. Not more than 200 copies, as it is supposed are printed of it.

11. *The Sheet of Annunciations*, published at Lemberg in Galicia.

12. *The Cracovia Gazette*, printed by Trasler.

13. *The Linz Gazette*, which is of ninety years standing. It is supported by from 8 to 900 subscribers. It is accompanied by Supplements. The editor is M. Francis Auninger.

14. *The Gazette of Clagenfurt*.—450 copies.

15 and 16.—*Two Gazettes of Laybach*.—The first begun in 1783. It is accompanied by Supplements: and not long ago reckoned 800 subscribers. The editor is M. Kleinmeyer. The second begun in 1789. It is published by M. Egers, with Supplements containing literary annunciations, and other information. About 400 copies of it are printed. The editor is M. Joseph Pessenegger.

II. GAZETTES IN FOREIGN LANGUAGES.

17. *Europa latina, cum genuina versione Ephemeridum Neovidensium*, Auctore Stephanio Rosenman. This is published at Vienna.

18. *Ephemerides Statistico-politicae*

Belnayanea Posonienses, quibus additur Neovidensis, published by Belnay, at Presburgh.

19. *Magyar Kurir*.—The Hungarian Courier, Edited at Vienna, by M. M. Pantzel and Decsy.

20. *Hazai Tadositasok*, another Hungarian paper; conducted at Pesth, by M. de Koutzac.

21 and 22. *Two Gazettes in the Bohemian language*, published at Prague. One of them has been conducted by M. John Kramerius; it is supported by about 500 subscribers. The other conducted by M. de Schoenfeld, may sell about the same number.

23. *An Italian Gazette*, published at Trieste, which though now under the French dominion may be reckoned for this purpose among the Austrians. It is called *Prezzo Corrente generale di Trieste*. The price current of merchandise and other commercial property, at the port, and on the exchange of Trieste.

24. *Osservatore Triestino*, the Trieste Observer. This is published twice a week, and has maintained itself about twenty three years. Supplements are also added to it. The editor is M. Joseph de Colleuti.

25. *Gazetta Krakowska*: a paper in the Polish language, published at Cracow.

Thus it appears that beside papers in the German language, the Austrian dominions have communications with their population in Latin, Hungarian, Bohemian, Italian, and Polish; and to these languages certainly ought to be added the Journal published in Greek, by Anthimus Gazi, mentioned in our 502d page, as appearing at Vienna once a fortnight.

Arts patronized: Artists accommodated.—Prince Rodolphus Colloredo Mansfield has caused his valuable gallery of pictures to be transported to Prague, to be opened in that city to all artists, and lovers of art. It is placed in this Prince's palace at Prague, of which (together with a collection of engravings) it occupies the whole of the third story. Connected with it are separate rooms in which artists are allowed to copy the pictures and engravings. This useful establishment has been open from the first day of January, 1800.

The Science of Music honoured, in the Person of a Professor.—The celebrated musical composer Louis de Beethoven, the worthy rival of Joseph Haydn, had received very seducing offers for his services from a foreign government. To preserve this artist to Austria, three of the principal Lords of the Court united to furnish him an independence. These are the archduke Rodolphus,

prince Lobkowitz, and prince Kinsky. These noblemen have ensured him a pension of 4,000 florins. Of this sum the archduke contributes, 1,400; prince Lobkowitz, 700; and prince Kinsky, 1,800 florins. This pension is to continue until M. de Beethoven is in possession of a situation equal in value to the sum stipulated; and in case he never obtains such an establishment, or that by accident or age he becomes unable to exercise his art, this income is guaranteed to him for life. In return, M. de Beethoven, binds himself to fix his residence, either in Vienna, or in some other city in the Austrian dominions; from which he is not to absent himself contrary to the consent of the said noblemen, who have executed deeds by which this provision is secured to his use.

New Edition of Horace.—The learned M. Fea is employed on a new edition of Horace, the text of which will be corrected by a copy hitherto unknown, preserved in the library of the Vatican.

Individual Munificence.—Count Samuel de Belezna has given the following sums to different establishments of the Austrian monarchy, in support of the utility derived from them to the public:—1. To the National Hungarian Museum, 2,000 florins.—2. To the National Hungarian Theatre at Pesth, 2,000 florins.—3. To the Military Academy of Louisa at Waitzen, 14,000 florins.—4. Toward the building of a house of assembly for the Comitat at Pesth, 2,000 florins.—5. Toward paying off the public debt, 4,000 florins.—6. To the Veteran Hungarians, 2,000 florins. In the whole these donations amount to the sum of 26,000 florins, applied to the objects selected by his princely liberality.

Statistics, Ancient and Modern.—The population of Vienna at the time of the siege by Mathias King of Hungary, 1484 and 1485, was only 50,000 souls. In 1803, it was 270,000; and now it is estimated at more than 300,000.

Schools instituted.—Vienna, Sept. 9.—His Majesty wishing to provide for the instruction and education of the Illyrian, Wallachian, and dissenting Greek children, domiciled in Hungary, Syria, Selavonia, Croatia, and the Banat, has given orders to Urosius Nestrowics, Councillor and Inspector-General of the National School of the Dissenting Greeks, to organise them according to the plan submitted by him, and approved by his Majesty, according to which five Directors of Districts have already been named. His Majesty proposes to provide, with the smallest delay, professors from among these nations, in three collegiate schools, one at St. Andre, in the neighbourhood of Offen, for the Illyrian Boers; another at Alt-Arad,

for the Wallachians; and the third at Pesth, for the Greeks. The two first will have three Professors, and one Catechist; the third will have but one Professor and one Catechist.

The opening of these schools is fixed for Nov. 1.

DENMARK.

Extraordinary long Winter, in Norway.—Letters from Norway dated in August, describe the last winter as having been of uncommon length. In the month of July, a great part of the country continued to be covered with snow; and the fruit trees had but recently begun to bud.

GERMANY.

Free press in Germany!—The editors of several German Journals have been reprimanded for inserting extracts of letters from the Grand Army, (French) detailing military operations, losses, &c. They are in future to copy ALL their intelligence on this subject from the French papers. The letters which appear in the French journals, on military subjects, are manufactured by persons in office. Officers with the army are forbidden to write respecting military events to their friends; but are desired to refer them to the Bullets.

French flag in the Baltic.—Buonaparte has issued a decree, ordering all ships from the Hanseatic ports to bear, in future, the French flag.

Land sunk: Lake formed.—The following curious phenomena were witnessed at Giessen, in the circle of the Upper Rhine:—On the 18th August, after continued sultry weather, a piece of woody ground, comprising twelve English acres, suddenly sunk about five feet; on the 20th it fell two feet more; on the 24th it sunk another foot, and continued giving way, almost imperceptibly, until, by the 4th September, it had sunk fifteen feet. This frightful chasm remained near a week, and was visited by thousands. On the 12th, the surface of the land became marshy; since which water was observed to rise, and by the 19th, it had entirely filled the vacuity, and presented a level sheet of water.

INDIES, WEST.

Additional Eruption of Volcanic Matter.—St. Vincent's, July 4. The Wallibon Quarter, on Sunday night last, witnessed a scene of horror and devastation, much more terrific and destructive in its effects than even the memorable night of the awful eruption of the Morne Soufriere. Prodigious masses of ignited substances which were ejected from the Wallibon river, effectually stopped the rolling of its waters, and a vast lake, in a constant state of effervescence, had formed near its

source, which continued daily to increase till it covered about four acres of land. On Sunday night last, the diffusion of water, from the fall of heavy rains, became so great that the frightful reservoir overflowed, and the prodigious flood burst through the barriers of volcanic combustibles with irresistible fury; and such was its destructive impetuosity, that it completely inundated the adjacent valley, and besides its ravages in bearing down a number of negro houses, several lives were lost, and others so dreadfully scalded from the river of liquid fire which overwhelmed them, that their lives are despaired of. The mountain, too, during the dreadful scene, had a return of one of its terrific fever fits; its roarings caused a general consternation, and on the following night, about eleven o'clock, a most violent concussion of the earth, such as the oldest inhabitants never experienced, was felt all over the island.—*Times*.

Political Revolution.—St. Domingo. It is understood, that Petion, after his last advantage over his rival Christophe, had obtained possession of St. Mark's, Cape Nicholas Mole, and Gonaves, and was advancing to take possession of Cape Francois, Fort Dauphin, and all the North. Christophe's soldiers had deserted him, in favour of his rival. Christophe had himself fled into the mountains with only a handful of men—his staff officers had joined Petion. He narrowly escaped a party which was sent in pursuit of him, and which he eluded by taking refuge in the mountains, with a few followers.

Letters from Jamaica, mention that Petion had advanced to Cape Francois with 12,000 men, and that that seat of his late rival's power had quietly submitted to his authority. The garrison consisted only of 5000 men. The treasure which Christophe had amassed by his exactions, to the amount of seven millions of dollars, had fallen into his hands. Petion, it is said, had given public notice, declaring that this money should be applied in establishing the affairs of the island. It was expected he would issue a proclamation, recalling all the former white inhabitants. Several vessels filled with passengers had gone from Jamaica and St. Thomas's, under the persuasion that they should be protected by the new government. Morn Nor, it is said, was the principal fortress which held out against him.

Negro Longevity.—A free negro woman, named Esmina Diamond, died July 26, in the island of Jamaica, aged one hundred and thirty years.

N. B. This has been stated in some papers at two hundred and thirty years; which is a mistake.

ITALY.

Volcanic Eruption.—August 1.—Mount Vesuvius, which had for some time been tranquil, was much agitated: a continued noise, resembling thunder, was heard—the base of the mountain was shaken as if by an earthquake; and clouds of smoke and cinders darkened the air: after some hours, the eruption ceased, when a column of fire burst from the crater, and attained a very high elevation. After burning five hours, the eruption ceased, and the volcano became quiet.

RUSSIA.

Particulars concerning the river Niester.—It has usually been supposed that the passage of the river Niester upwards, against the stream, was absolutely impracticable: but this appears to be an error by the testimony of a writer who navigated on this river, in 1804, and has since published an account of his voyage. He first descended from the point where this stream becomes navigable, whence he descended it, to its issue in the Black Sea. The boat in which he was, was laden with a weight of 4,800 pounds, and both descended and ascended the river. To give some idea of the difficulties of the ascending expedition, he observes, that to make a passage of only five miles by land, it was necessary to accomplish a voyage by the river of 400 wersts; from Mayak to Czabruca: in this the author employed eleven days, labouring against the current: he therefore proposes to avoid this impediment by a canal from Mayak to Odessa. He does not explain—what would have been the most interesting particular in all his passage—by what means he ascended the cataracts of the river: he contents himself with saying that he was arrested at Janikulow by the Russian soldiers, because he had cut away the bushes which hindered the navigation on the side of Treppelheweg.

One of the most remarkable things observed by this traveller was to find the *islands* in the Niester covered with fruit trees, as apple-trees, pear-trees, cherry-trees, &c. while along the *sides* of the river, not a trace of such trees was discoverable. The author's name is Frederic Bauer; his work was some time ago published at Vienna, in French.

Jesuits Address.—The Jesuits, who have a seminary at McHilef, lately presented an address to the Emperor Alexander. They mention, with veneration, the name of Catherine II. who granted them an asylum when all Europe was leagued in persecuting their order—profess an ardent attachment to the Emperor's family, person, and government; and conclude in these words:—“ And we supplicate, night and day, the Almighty Disposer of all things to preserve

your Imperial Majesty's life and throne, and crown with success the just defence of your empire against the ambitious and sanguinary power that has invaded it."

SICILY.

New Constitution.—Palermo, July 21. Yesterday the three branches of Parliament, the Ecclesiastical, Military, and Territorial, met in the usual manner. Pursuant to instructions received from his Royal Highness the Vicar-General, they commenced their great work ; and adopted the British Constitution as the basis of the new Constitution of Sicily.

They fixed the limits of the legislative, executive, and judiciary powers. The first is lodged in Parliament ; the second, in the King, whose person is declared to be sacred and inviolable ; but his ministers are held responsible for their conduct, to Parliament, which is empowered to try and pass sentence on them whenever they are found guilty in the exercise of their functions. The judges are declared independent of any other authority, but if a judge commit an offence, he is to be impeached by the House of Commons, and tried by the House of Lords. The Parliament will no longer be composed of three branches, but of two houses, viz. the House of Commons, consisting of the representatives of the cities and baronies ; and the House of Lords formed by the union of the baronial and ecclesiastical branches. The peers cannot be tried but by the House of Lords. No individual can be arrested, banished, transported, or condemned, but by the judges of the land, according to the laws. In enacting of laws, the two houses must agree ; but they are not to be enforced as laws until they have been sanctioned by the King, who is at liberty to give or refuse his sanction. Parliament alone has the right of raising taxes.

The barons of the kingdom have generously given up those feudal privileges which they had enjoyed for eight centuries by the unquestionable right of birth, and by the fundamental laws of the kingdom.—They have given up those numerous feudal rights which could not be abolished in any of the countries where they were established, but by the force of arms, nor be extinguished but in torrents of blood.—They have waived many prerogatives which gave them decided pre-eminence above the other classes ; and they rest satisfied with those rights which they enjoy in common with all their fellow-citizens ; thus making of the whole kingdom of Sicily but one family, under one head.

Abundant Harvest.—The harvest has been so productive, that the price of corn is fallen to half its former price. It is also lowered considerably in Malta, and in all the ports on the Mediterranean.

SPAIN.

Siege of Cadiz.—The French threw, or attempted to throw, into Cadiz, from the 15th March, 1810, to the 29th August, 1812, 1391 bombs, 1672 grenades, and 12,401 twenty-four pound balls ; and the Spaniards, during the same time, from the castle of Puntalis, alone threw upon the enemy's line 8261 of the first, 12,960 of the second, and 32,048 of the third.

New Coinage.—A new coinage has been issued at Madrid, in the name of Ferdinand the VII.

Military Present.—The Spanish government have sent two of the mortars used by the French at the siege of Cadiz, as a present to His Royal Highness the Prince Regent. These new implements of war were invented by a Spaniard ; they are said to weigh 20 tons, and carry a shell of one hundred weight to the amazing distance of three miles.

Inquisition “to be or not to be.”—Cadiz, September 11. The Inquisition of Seville gave signs of life with the disappearance of the French—and were disposing in body to celebrate a church ceremony, but Señor Cruz opposed it, stating that he had no orders to re-establish any corporation, and still less those which, far from being comprehended among the tribunals expressed in the Constitution, were openly opposed in its wise principles.

SWITZERLAND.

Destructive Avalanche.—An avalanche occurred, Sept. 4, in the neighbourhood of Villeneuve. A part of the eastern chain of the Fourches, which had been sapped by a stream that ran at its base, suddenly fell with a terrific noise. About thirty cottages were buried beneath the ruins, and twelve of their inmates killed. The noise of the avalanche was heard at the distance of six miles.

TURKEY.

Turkish severity : Russian compliance.—Constantinople, August 10. The Sultan has made an example of severity and justice, of thirty pirates, who were brought here with their vessel a few days since. He caused them all to be beheaded, and their heads were afterwards exposed in different parts of the city.

A singular occurrence took place here a few days ago : an hundred and forty Russian prisoners, tired, probably, of their long captivity, embraced the Mahometan religion. They were brought in triumph from their prison, completely clothed in the Turkish manner, and the pious Mussulmans loaded them with presents. Some were sent on board the fleet, and other placed in different military corps.

TYROL.

Industry in search of occupation abroad : wives and families orderly at home.—The migrations of various people in search of employment, and greater reward for their labour than they can obtain at home,—if indeed, at home, they can obtain employment of any kind, is deserving of closer examination than it has usually received. We know, that at the hay season, hundreds, perhaps thousands of Irish labourers cross the channel between the two islands, and seek for work in the neighbourhood of London. Here they procure pay, better no doubt, than in their own country ; and they increase their gains, as they work their way down to the western coast of England. We know also, that in the fruit season, hundreds of girls come up from Wales and are employed in hastily conveying the fresh gathered fruit from the gardeners within four or five miles of the metropolis to the dealers at market. The exertion they make on this occasion can only be conceived by those who have witnessed it, with a more than cursory notice. As they usually follow in strings of half a dozen or more, emulation not seldom costs some of them their lives. Their pace is a kind of jerk, rather running than walking ; and the heat into which they are thrown by the violence of their exercise is truly alarming to cool consideration. The numbers of Savoyards and Swiss, which while the communication with the continent was open, used annually to visit England, stay a few months and return home, was more than could be credited, except by those who knew them. Of these, a portion occasionally came no further than Paris. In like manner, many of the natives of the southern provinces of France used to travel into Spain, to assist in the labours of the vintage, &c. In another article of the present number the reader has seen the Kroomen of Africa travel three hundred and fifty miles in search of profit. We now direct his attention to the inhabitants of the Tyrol, of which a great proportion of the men and sturdy lads, leave their native homes every year, and travel in troops of thirty or forty into Switzerland, or the south of Germany, in order to acquire some small sum of money, which they earn by working, as bricklayers, masons, carpenters, &c. They continue absent from two to six months ; when they return with a sum sufficient to maintain their families during the winter. Some are so venturesome as to try their fortune in vessels bound to India, and are absent, as may be supposed, from three to four years. These bring home considerable sums.

From this cause among all the mountainous districts of the Tyrol, the population is in a continual state of fluctuation, according to

the seasons of the year, or the species of industry to which the inhabitants attach themselves. During the time of the absentees' emigration, the best peopled hamlets appear like so many deserts ; only a few women, old men, and children, can be found in them. What is infinitely to the honour of these mountaineers, however, there never was an instance known that a husband at his return to his own fire side found his wife unfaithful, or his family dispersed.

There can be little doubt but other parts of the globe furnish instances to the same effect. The course of life of these people, as to disease or health, as to duration and termination, is a curious subject of enquiry. The condition of their families at home, in their absence, the strength of relative affection among them, the state of morals, &c. &c. are so many additional articles by which to guide our judgment in determining whether this course of life be advantageous to man in a social state, and whether it be *natural*. Is it any relict of the *Nomadic* disposition of the species ?

OBSERVANDA INTERNA.

Officers of the British Navy.—The list of the navy recently published, enumerates the following number of officers, viz.

Admiral of the fleet	1
Admirals of the red	22
Admirals of the white	21
blue	21
Vice-admirals of the red	23
white	23
blue	23
Rear-admirals of the red	22
white	23
blue	23
Superannuated rear-admirals	31
Superannuated and retired captains ..	31
Post captains	797
Commanders	595
Retired commanders	50
Lieutenants	3327
of which 223 are noted as unfit for service.	

The French Eagles.—The ceremony of depositing, in Whitehall Chapel, the Eagles and Colours heroically wrested from the French in Spain, took place on Wednesday September 30.

Soon after nine o'clock, the 1st regt. of Guards, who were to do the duty of the day, formed on the parade. On their left the 2d regt. formed, with side arms only. The 3d regiment, also with side-arms only, in their rear. On their left were stationed, with fixed bayonets, 30 rank and file, grenadiers of 1st regt. 30 of the 2d, and 30 of the 3d regt. and 9 sergeants, who were to carry

the eagles and colours. The line was continued to the Horse Guards, and consisted of the horse and foot artillery stationed in the metropolis; with the several recruiting parties belonging to the cavalry and infantry. In the rear of the first line, facing the Horse Guards, were formed the two regts. of Life Guards, with their full bands, their left extending to the wall of Carlton-house. About half past nine, General Sir Harry Burrard arrived, and assumed the command.

Soon after ten o'clock, the Duchess of York arrived. Her Majesty and the Princesses, in two carriages, soon followed, and were received by the troops with presented arms, the bands playing "God save the King." They then took their station in the Levee-room of the Horse-guards, which commands a view of the parade.

The Prince Regent, on a white charger, came from Carlton-house at half-past ten, accompanied by the Duke of York on foot, the Duke of Kent, Colonels Bloomfield, Congreve, and Torrens, and several other officers on horseback. His Royal Highness on reaching the parade was received with the usual honours, passed down the whole, the Duke of York on foot at his right hand, and took his station. After the usual ceremony of the parade, the sub-divisions of grenadiers, stationed on the left of the line, were ordered to wheel on the right, and, preceded by the band of the 1st regt. marched round the square, and halted facing the Tilt-yard. At this instant the bands of the horse and foot regts. began playing, and the Eagles, *five in number*, were brought out and given to the sergeants, who marched in the rear of the first sub-division. Three standards and one regimental colour, were next brought, and given to the remaining sergeants, who marched in the rear of the second sub-division: the band of the first regiment playing the "Grenadiers' March." On reaching the station of the Prince Regent and the Royal Family, the Eagles and Colours were lowered amid the acclamations of thousands of spectators. The three sub-divisions then halted, and advanced their arms, and in ordinary time paraded round. On reaching the colours of the first regiment, the whole of the trophies were lowered to the ground. They again passed the Royal Family, the Eagles and Colours being dropped, and marched through the Horse Guards to Whitehall Chapel. The remainder of the infantry were ordered to wheel on their left backwards, and, in open order, passed the Prince Regent to the Chapel, with the exception of the guard for the day. The Life-Guards followed in the same manner, and occupied their original ground. The Prince Regent, Dukes of York and Kent, &c. proceeded to Whitehall to hear divine service.

The concourse of people assembled on the occasion was immense, and the spectacle altogether was most gratifying. It was impossible to view, without exultation, those trophies which bore witness to the prowess of British soldiers, won from troops whose military reputation stands so high in Europe. The Eagles were five in number; two of them taken at the battle of Salamanca, were very much mutilated; two others, taken at Madrid, were in a more perfect state; the fifth was found in a stream near Ciudad Rodrigo, into which it was thrown when Massena's army was closely pressed by the British cavalry, on its retreat from Portugal. Four of the Eagles are numbered 13, 22, 39, 51.

The four standards were in such a tattered state, that there was not a device or letter legible. The garrison flag of Badajoz was like a sieve, and great part of it quite red with human blood.

New Street Bill.—An application is intended to be made next session, to form a new street from Pall Mall, opposite Carlton house, to the south end of Portland Place, of the width of 100 feet, which street is intended to run in the following direction: at right angles with Pall Mall from the middle of Carlton house into Piccadilly; in Piccadilly to form a small circus, the centre of which will be the intersection of a line drawn from the middle of the portico of Carlton house to the middle of Piccadilly; from Piccadilly the said street is to continue in a direct line northward into Brewer Street, forming an open square between the circus last mentioned and Brewer Street, and which square will comprehend all the houses lying between Sherrard Street and Swallow Street, and between Brewer Street and the said circus; from the west side of the said square the said street is intended to continue northward in one straight line into Oxford Road, entering Oxford Road in that part of it where King Street and Swallow Street unite, crossing Beak Street in the middle, between Warwick Street and Swallow Street; from Oxford Road the said new street is intended to continue to the south end of Portland Place, and will be in a straight line with Portland Place the whole of the way from Oxford Road; in the course of the said new street from Pall Mall to Piccadilly, it will cross Charles Street, Market Street, and Jermyn Street; in the course of the said new street between Piccadilly and Oxford Street it will cross Castle Street, Marylebone Street, Glasshouse Street, Leicester Street, New Burlington Street, Faubert's Passage, Conduit Street, Beak Street, Silver Street, Hanover Street, Little Argyle Street, and Princes Street; and in its course from Oxford Road to Portland Place, it will cross Great Castle Street, Margaret Street, and Mortimer Street, also giv-

ving powers to widen the east end of Pall Mall, and to continue Pall Mall eastward, by making a new street from the east end thereof into St. Martin's Lane, opposite the porches of St. Martin's Church, crossing Great Saffron Street and Whitecross Street; and also to widen Cockspur Street, from the south end of the Haymarket to Charing Cross, and to form an open square in the King's Mews, opposite Charing Cross; and also to widen Jermyn Street, and continue it by a new street from the east end thereof into the Haymarket, and from the west end thereof into St. James's Street; and also to continue Charles Street, St. James's Square, from the east end thereof into the Haymarket; and also to form an open square opposite the north front of Carlton House; and also to continue King Street, St. James's Square, by a new street from the west end thereof into St. James's Street; also to divert, alter, widen, and improve such parts of the present streets as will form entrances into the said intended new street; and to alter and amend an act intituled "an Act for making a new Street from the Haymarket into Charles Street, St. James's Square, within the City and Liberty of Westminister."

Royal Visit to Drury Lane Theatre.—On Thursday, Oct. 1, her Majesty, accompanied by the princess Charlotte of Wales, the princesses Augusta and Mary, the Prince Regent, and the Duke of Clarence, visited this building. Every suitable preparation was made for her majesty's reception which could be made consistently with the state of the works still in progress. Crimson carpeting was laid down from the foot pavement, where her majesty alighted, over the whole of the staircases, rooms, corridors, and avenues, through which her majesty passed. All the work-people were placed in the two galleries, and none but those who were necessarily in attendance on the royal family were allowed to appear in any other part of the building. The interior of the theatre itself was illuminated precisely as it will be on the nights of performance, and daylight carefully excluded.—The royal party were received at the principal box entrance in Brydges-street, by Mr. B. Wyatt, the architect; Mr. Arnold, the manager; and Mr. Ward, secretary to the committee. They proceeded from thence, through the hall, rotunda, and by the principal staircases, to the dress boxes, the King's box, the King's anti-room and staircase, the Prince Regent's box, the gallery of the rotunda, the saloons, the first tier of boxes, the pit, and the stage. The principles and arrangements of the plan of the theatre were fully explained to the royal party by the architect, and the officers of the establishment already mentioned. The scenes

and machinery were exhibited; and her majesty, as well as the Prince Regent, and the whole of the royal party, were pleased to express their approbation in terms extremely gratifying to those under whose management this building has been erected. The Prince Regent ordered 25 guineas to be given to the workmen to drink the health of the queen.

We refrain from offering in this place any detailed opinion on the general arrangements and decorations of this theatre, but we are anxious to avail ourselves of this opportunity to mention a few particulars, which may prove interesting to the public, and which do honour to the architect. One of these is the careful provision which has been made to secure the audience against all danger in cases of sudden accident or alarm. In the first place, the circular wall, which encloses and forms the back of the boxes (and which in all other theatres in this country has been a framing of timber) is, in this, a solid brick wall of three feet thick; and at a distance of only eight feet from that wall is another, of concentric form, of two feet three inches thickness; the two being connected by strong brick arches, covered with stone above, forming the corridors or passages immediately at the back of the several tiers of boxes, and constituting a double barrier of uncombustible materials to check the progress of fire, should such an accident at any time happen, and should it advance from the stage, or any part of the house behind the curtain, towards the audience. The staircases leading to the boxes, as well as those to both galleries, are entirely of stone; and the avenues and door-ways leading to them all so constructed, in point of materials and capacity, as to afford effectual security, both against fire, and the melancholy effects which have sometimes arisen from the pressure of a great concourse of people in situations of sudden alarm. The external doors of the theatre, also, are so constructed as to open outwards as well as inwards, thereby preventing the possibility of their becoming an impediment to the free egress of the crowd, in case of a sudden rush of people from within. In addition to these precautions, a system has been adopted, which promises effectually to secure the building from fire, should it at any time happen in any of those parts where timber is necessarily employed. For this plan the theatre is indebted to the science and ingenuity of Colonel Congreve, who gratuitously undertook to superintend its execution. The above arrangements are calculated not only for the security of lives in cases of sudden accident or alarm, but for the comfort and accommodation of those going to every part of the house. It is a remarkable fact, that although the plan of this theatre and

that of Covent-Garden theatre are totally different, the quantity of solid brick-work has been found, by actual measurement, to be nearly the same in each.

The four private boxes in the tier above the dress-boxes are appropriated to sundry noble personages. The box nearest the stage, on the prince's side, is intended for the accommodation of his royal highness the Prince Regent; and the one opposite to it is the duke of Bedford's, as landlord of the site on which the theatre stands; the small box next to that of the Prince Regent, is allotted to Mrs. Garrick, the widow of the former illustrious proprietor of this theatre (who is legally intituled to the same for her life); and that opposite to it (which was made for the purpose of preserving uniformity in the two sides of the house), has been disposed of to the duke of Devonshire, for a period of 21 years. The orchestra boxes, are less in number by four in this than they were in the late theatre.

Description of Drury Lane Theatre.—This theatre opened on Saturday, Oct. 10, to an immense audience, with *Hamlet*, preceded by an Address written by the Rt. Hon. Lord Byron, for which vide page 895. The public expectation had been so much excited, that the doors were crowded at an early hour, and the whole neighbourhood kept in a state of tumult until the time of admission came. The multitude then rushed forwards, and the difficulty of entrance became excessive; the guards were repeatedly pushed from their posts; but we have not heard that any very serious injuries had been inflicted on either side. When at length the crowd had slowly laboured their way into the hall, they found other difficulties; and the passages to the doors for receiving money were scenes of nearly as much struggle and danger as the street. This hall is a large unornamented, oblong entrance, lighted by a handsome circular lamp, with a range of narrow iron-railing enclosing the pay-doors. The next progress is into a circular apartment, surrounded by columns, and covered by a dome; a figure of Shakespeare stands on a large stove opposite to the entrance, and the openings on the right and left lead to the grand staircases. On the landing-place of each, a line of railing, bronzed and gilt, is drawn across for the ticket-receivers; and those once passed, the audience are let loose among the galleries, &c. of this striking edifice. The general avenue to the upper part, in the interior, is a showy circular passage, running round the Shakespeare-hall, at about a third of its height, lighted with antique lamps of bronze, and branching off to the saloon and the boxes. The saloon, on whose construction the Architect probably occupied much of his means, is handsome, so far as size may assist its effect. Large,

and rather awkward ottomans are placed at intervals in two lines down the middle: the recesses in the sides are lined with sofas. The colour of the furniture is throughout scarlet. Two coffee rooms close the extremities. Chandeliers and lamps, on antique models, are interspersed in great profusion. On the box-doors being opened, the theatre blazes on the eye; and it is scarcely possible for any eye to look upon it without being for the moment dazzled and fixed by its prodigal and luxuriant beauty. The back of the boxes sweeps, as it appeared to us, a segment of about two thirds of a circle; but the front deviates with uncommon elegance, from a figure almost too precise and too unmanageable for the purposes of a theatre, and assumes the form of an irregular conchoid, or, to use a more familiar illustration, a horse-shoe, considerably flattened in the middle. This form gives great advantages in seeing and hearing, from bringing forward the audience more equally to the front. We understand that the centre boxes are 17 feet nearer the stage than in the Covent-garden theatre, and 16 feet nearer than in the former house. The front of the dress-boxes is simple and delicate: that of the first circle, retiring by a slight bend, is covered with gilding and colours; the fronts of the upper rows are gorgeously decorated with green and gold. The back of the boxes is a strong red; the cushions of deep crimson. The pit contains only 17 rows of seats, but it seems capacious and well arranged: the entrances are at the back. The orchestra occupies but a part of it, and the seats at either end reach down to the stage. The aspect of the stage is admirable: the place of the stage-doors is filled up by two immense groupes of griffones or sphinxes in bronze, supporting each a brazen tripod of gas-lights. The flame rises from a circle of thirty-six small tubes above the edge of the urn; and, from its brilliancy, wavering delicacy, and slight connection with its support, excites universal admiration. Over these, on a line with the first and second circles, are the managers' boxes, small and singularly tasteful: above these is a magnificent cornice, of regular architecture; and the whole is surmounted by the statue of a Muse. From the overpowering brightness of the stage and the tripods, the eye rises to the graceful ornament of those recesses, that look, with their gold and imaged work, like pavilions in an Eastern garden, and from them gradually fixes on the pale and marble form of a Muse, surrounded with the severer lines of the architecture, slightly shaded from the burning brightness of the stage, and standing in all the grace of Greek simplicity. Two large green columns, with gilded capitals, limit the stage on

either side, and the architect seems to have availed himself of them in a very able manner. From the comparative narrowness of the stage, it might have been feared that the figures of the performers would appear disproportionately large, at least to all that majority of the audience not perfectly on their level: but by bringing forward these pillars, and still more by, if we may so express the idea, extending their pedestal on both sides of the proscenium, an immediate contrast is formed, which reduces the stature of the performer to the due proportion. From this, the stage appears to have all the advantage, without the inconvenience, of that size, which has given rise to so much complaint in the Covent-garden theatre. On a comparison with this latter theatre, defects occur in both; but the respective character differs so widely, that a perfect contrast is beyond our powers, or our time.—One produces its effect by rigid regularity; the other by various elegance. In the one, decoration obstructs itself reluctantly, and is submissive to the sterner spirit of the Temple; in the other, the wantonness of a luxuriant taste sports in all its fancies, and impresses all it touches with the spirit of an oriental palace. Shakespeare would have chosen Covent-garden for the sterner passions of his *Othello*, or the desperate and sublime cruelty of his *Lady Macbeth*; but for the light elegance, and fairy beauty, and fantastic splendour of the *Tempest*, or the *Midsummer Night's Dream*, he would have turned unwillingly from Drury-lane. They are both able works, and do honour to the liberality and the skill by which they have been raised within so short a period; but a decision on their respective merits must depend on the peculiar habits of the decider. An ancient Greek would scarcely have refused to Covent-garden the praise of his grave and silent admiration. A modern Frenchman could not restrain his clamorous delight at the coup-d'œil of its glittering rival. We should, perhaps, side with the Greek.

The theatre has defects; some of which may be easily remedied. One of the first remedies should be, the immediate removal of the statue of Shakespeare, from its ill appropriated situation, immediately over a burning stove; the removal of the awkward lamps round the gallery; and a general war against those patches of gilding, that are perpetually obstructing themselves in the avenues, on lamps, rails, and pillars. Gaudiness is the "universal passion" of the building; and the heavy nudity of the outside is ill compensated by the heavier prodigality of gold leaf within.

The outside of this theatre is at present unfinished; the stucco which covers a part of the front, being only squared off; it is to be

extended over the whole of the brick-work, when time and the treasury shall serve. A serious cause of complaint has been found in the absence of all external shelter from the weather, to the waiting populace;—there is no portico, or other protection. To this it has been answered that porticos and other avenues outside of the theatres, have been considered by the magistrates, as resorts of pickpockets, and night-walkers, of every description, to clear the theatre from which is one step towards decency of conduct and manners.

Magnetic Needle.—Captain Flinders has drawn up a statement of his remarks on the magnetic powers of the needle, made during his voyage for examining New Holland, and New South Wales, in the *Investigator*. The observations contain the differences noticed at the binnacle, on changing the head of the ship from east to west: also the result of observations recently made at Sheerness, Plymouth, and Portsmouth, in different ships of war, all of which vary materially from those made by the *Investigator*. In the voyages performed by Captain Cook and by Captain Vancouver, the differences appear to have been nearly the same as in the ship Captain Flinders commanded; and also of a *contrary nature in the two hemispheres*. The statement is to be circulated throughout the navy, with directions for collecting observations on the magnetism of the needle on board of every ship, in all situations. The board of longitude, it is said, are to consider the result of these remarks, the discovery that led to them being deemed of great importance to navigation.

New Coinage.—An issue has been made from the bank of new three-shilling and eighteen-penny pieces. They are better executed than the former bank tokens. The head is more prominent, and requires considerable force and power to make the impression.

Price of Silver.—Silver in dollars has lately risen to the unpreceded price of 6s. 9d. per oz. This extraordinary advance is, by some, attributed to the high rate of exchange at Petersburgh, which has induced the English merchants to remit bullion in large quantities, to avoid being drawn upon. While Russia submitted to the French continental system, the rouble was as low as 11d. sterling, but it has lately risen as high as 24d. and, by the last accounts, remained at 25d. Bullion has long been in great request at the Russian mints for coin, which is very scarce in that empire.

Quarantine Questions.—The gazette of Saturday, Oct. 10, contains an order in council, directing that the following ques-

tions shall be put to masters of vessels arriving from America or the West Indies, previous to the other questions prescribed by former orders, viz.—" In the course of your voyage have any persons on board suffered from sickness of any kind; what was the nature of such sickness; and when did it prevail? how many persons were affected by it? and have any of them died in the course of the voyage?"

Sabbath-breaking punished.—James Hall, farmer, and Samuel Blow, miller, both of the parish of Holton Beckering, Lincolnshire, were, on the information of the Rev. John Hale, the rector, charged before Richard Elmhirst, Esq. one of his majesty's justices of the peace for that county, with scandalously profaning the sabbath, Hall having allowed two of his labourers to devote the whole of that day to reaping corn, and Blow having suffered his mill to be at work, not only the greater part of the day, but during divine service. They were both convicted in the full penalties, agreeably to the statute. The money was laid out in bread, to be distributed amongst the poor people of the village.

Mr. Sadler's Balloon.—Mr. Sadler ascended from Belvidere-house, near Dublin, on Thursday, October 1, at 1 P. M. with the wind at S. W. and in 35 minutes had sight of the mountains in Wales; he continued in the same direction till three o'clock; when being nearly over the Isle of Man, the wind blowing fresh, he found himself fast approaching the Welsh coast; and at four o'clock, he had a distinct view of the Skerry light house, and the prospect of consummating his ardent hopes of a speedy arrival at Liverpool. But the wind now shifting, he was blown off, and lost sight of land. After hovering about for a long time, he discovered five vessels beating down Channel; —in hopes of their assistance, he determined on descending with all possible expedition, and precipitated himself into the sea. In this most critical situation, he had the mortification to find that the vessels took no notice of him: obliged, therefore, to re-ascend, he threw out a quantity of ballast, and quickly regained his situation in the air, to look out for more friendly aid. It was a length of time before he had the satisfaction of discovering any, and then observed a vessel, which gave him to understand by signal, that she intended to render him assistance, but could not reach him. Two others also now appeared in sight, and one of them tacking about hoisted the Manx colours. Night now coming on, he was determined to avail himself of their friendly aid, and once more descended into the sea; but here the wind acting upon the balloon as it lay

on the water, drew the car with so much velocity, that the vessel could not overtake it; and notwithstanding he used his utmost efforts, and latterly tied his clothes to the grapping iron, and sunk them to keep him steady, still the balloon was carried away so fast, that he was under the necessity of expelling the gas; upon that escaping, the car actually sunk, and he had now nothing but the netting to cling to. His perilous situation and the fear of getting entangled, deterred the men from coming near him; until, being in danger of drowning, Mr. Sadler begged they would run their bowsprit through the balloon, and expel the remaining gas. Having done this, they threw out a line, which he wound round his arm, and was then dragged a considerable way before they could get him on board, quite exhausted. The ship was a herring-fisher from Douglas, in the Isle of Man, called the *Victory*, commanded by John Lee. In this situation he was conveyed to Liverpool; where, finding the crowd of spectators immense, his clothes being wet, and in great disorder, he paid a visit on board the *Princess* frigate, where he was most politely received, and accommodated with clothes, by Lieutenant Roche. On Saturday, Mr. Sadler arrived at Holyhead, at three o'clock in the afternoon, on his way to Dublin.

Liverpool Dinner.—At a dinner of the Freemen of Liverpool lately given, the following was the bill of fare:—two whole sheep, 50 rounds of beef, 1 baron of beef, 30 legs of mutton, 1,500 loaves of bread, 2 cart-loads of potatoes, 23 barrels of ale and porter.

Agricultural Premiums.—The committee of the Oxfordshire Agricultural Society, John Fane, Esq. president, have increased many of the last year's premiums for the next year. Two premiums of 5l. and 4l. each were added for horse ploughing, two for boys under 10 years of age.—One of 4l. was added for oxen ploughing, and the number of oxen in each plough was limited to four.—One of 4l. was added to each of the classes for men and maid servants in husbandry, hired by the year, for labourers in husbandry, and for labourers bringing up large families with the least parochial assistance.—Ten premiums were offered for shepherds who may bring up the greatest proportion of lambs to their number of ewes, of from 1l. to 5l. each, in two classes, for long and short woolled sheep.—Three of 10l. each for the best bulls, one year old, two years old, and aged.—Two of 10l. and 5l. each for the best fat cows, and two of 5l. each for the two best pens of two and three-shear fat wethers, with the same conditions as those of the Smithfield club.—Three of 5l. each for the best three rams, 2

years old, of different breeds.—Four premiums of from 1l. to 4l. each, for shearers—and the four prizes for *Essays* were raised from 8l. to 10l. each. The premiums of last year amounted to 164l. of which 99l. were awarded to different articles, &c. at the show; those for next year amount to 323l.

Fire-ball.—Oct. 1, the metropolis was visited by a violent thunder-storm, which was ushered in by a very unusual darkness of the atmosphere, partly occasioned by the density of the clouds, and partly by the non-ascend of the smoke in consequence of the close calm which prevailed. A ball of fire entered the Thames, near the stern of the tender, off the Tower, which, on coming in contact with the water, exploded, and made a report equal to that of a large cannon.

SCOTLAND.

Northern Whale Fishery.—The vessels employed in the Davis' Straits fishery, have been remarkably successful. The cargoes of the *Advice*, 10 fish, will produce about 150 tons of oil;—the *Calypso*, 11, or 150 tons;—the *Horn*, 16, or 200 tons;—the *Estridge*, 10, or 145 tons;—the *Friendship*, 13, or 165 tons;—these, with the cargo of the *Mary Ann*, which arrived July 1, make a total of about 1000 tons of oil; by far the greatest quantity of the article ever imported in one year into Greenock; and with the whalebone, may be valued at 37 or 40,000l. We are much gratified in noticing the flourishing state of this branch of our trade, as the means of subsistence which it gives is very considerable; it also affords a proof of what may be attained by perseverance, and by encouraging emulation among the masters, who, as fishers, may now be reckoned nearly equal to any in the empire. To those who recollect the cargoes brought home twenty years ago, the contrast will be particularly remarkable.

Home-made Wines.—An Edinburgh paper says that thirty specimens of excellent home-made wines had been sent to the Caledonian Horticultural Society, in consequence of their advertising a prize-medal for the best.

Improved Property.—A property, some part of which was heath, in one of the most unimproved parts of the stewartry of Kirkcudbright, purchased, twelve years ago, at £7. per acre, was lately sold at £100 per acre.

Clandestine Marriages.—Circuit Intelligence, Aberdeen, Sept. 23.—The court proceeded to the case of George Lyon, *vintner*, and eldest baillie of the burgh of Inverurie, accused of malversation of office, in having celebrated clandestine marriages, and taken and received pecuniary recompence. The libel proceeded on the act 1664, cap. 34, and also on the common law. Messrs. Gordon

and Lumsden, advocates, appeared as counsel for Mr. Lyon, and stated various objections to the relevancy of the indictment, the greater part of which, after considerable discussion, were sustained; and that part only of the indictment which charged the pannel with receiving pecuniary recompence was found relevant; Mr. Lyon denied the whole of the charge; and his counsel declared their readiness to meet the public prosecutor on it; but the advocate depute, from various circumstances, moved the court to desert the *diet pro loco et tempore*.

The Lord Justice Clerk observed, that between the present case, and that which occurred at Jedburgh last Circuit, there was a marked distinction, in so far as that the pannels in the latter were accused, and found guilty of *assuming the clerical profession*, and in that character celebrating marriage according to the established forms of our national church: whereas, in the present instance, no such accusation appeared. Lord Hermand coincided in opinion with his lordship, and Mr. Lyon was dismissed from the bar.

POETRY.
PRIZE POEM.

THE BELVIDERE APOLLO.

Heard ye the arrow hurtle in the sky?
Heard ye the dragon monster's deathful cry?
In settled majesty of fierce disdain,
Proud of his might, yet scornful of the slain,
The heav'ly Archer stands—no human birth,
No perishable denizen of earth;
Youth blooms immortal in his beardless face,
A God in strength, with more than godlike grace;
All, all divine—no struggling muscle glows,
Through heaving vein no panting life-blood

flows,

But animate with deity alone,
In deathless glory lives the breathing stone.

Bright-kindling with a conqueror's stern delight,
His keen eye tracks the arrow's fateful flight;
Burns his indignant cheek with vengeful fire,
And his lip quivers with insulting ire:
Firm-fix'd his tread, yet light, as when on high
He walks th' impalpable and pathless sky:
The rich luxuriance of his hair, confin'd
In graceful ringlets, wantons on the wind,
That lifts in sport his mantle's drooping fold,
Proud to display that form of faultless mould.

Mighty Ephesian!* with an eagle's flight
Thy proud soul mounted through the fields of
light,

View'd the bright conclave of Heaven's blest abode,
And the cold marble leapt to life a God:

* Agamis of Ephesus.

Contagious awe through breathless myriads ran,
And nations bow'd before the w^lok of man.
For mild he seem'd, as in Elysian bowers,
Wasting in careless ease the joyous hours ;
Haughty, as bards have sung, with princely sway,
Curbing the fierce flame-breathing steeds of day ;
Beauteous as vision seen in dreamy sleep
By holy maid on Delphi's haunted steep,
'Mid the dim twilight of the laurel grove,
Too fair to worship, too divine to love.

Yet on that form, in wild delirious trance,
With more than reverence gaz'd the maid of France.

Day after day the love-sick dreamer stood
With him alone, nor thought it solitude ;
To cherish grief, her last, her dearest care,
Her one fond hope—to perish or despair.
Oft as the shifting light her sight beguil'd,
Blushing she shrunk, and thought the marble
smil'd :

Oft breathless list'ning heard, or seem'd to hear,
A voice of music melt upon her ear.
Slowly she wan'd, and cold and senseless grown,
Clos'd her dim eyes, herself benumb'd to stone.
Yet love in death a sickly strength supplied,
Once more she gaz'd, then feebly smil'd and died.

HENRY HART MILMAN,
BRAZEN-NOSE COLLEGE.

The Apollo is in the act of watching the arrow
with which he slew the serpent Python.

The foregoing fact is related in the work of
Mons. Pinel sur l'Insanité.

ADDRESS ON THE OPENING OF DRURY-LANE
THEATRE.

Written by Lord Byron.

In one dread night our city saw, and sighed,
Bowed to the dust, the Drama's tower of pride ;
In one short hour beheld the blazing fane,
Apollo sink, and Shakspere cease to reign.

Ye who beheld, O sight, admired and mourned,
Whose radiance mocked the ruin it adorned !
Through clouds of fire, the massy fragments
riven,

Like Israel's pillar, chase the night from heaven,
Saw the long column of revolving flames
Shake its red shadow o'er the startled Thames !
While thousands, thronged around the burning
dome,

Shrank back appalled, and trembled for their
home ;

As glared the volumed blaze, and ghastly shone
The skies, with lightnings awful as their own ;
Till blackening ashes and the lonely wall
Usurped the Muse's realm, and marked her fall ;
Say—shall this new nor less aspiring pile,
Reared, where once rose the mightiest in our isle,

Know the same favour which the former knew,
A shrine for SHAKESPEARE, worthy him and you ?

Yes, it shall be—The magic of that name
Defies the scythe of time, the torch of flame ;
On the same spot still consecrates the scene,
And bids the Drama be where she hath been :—
This fabric's birth attests the potent spell.
Indulge our honest pride, and say, *How well !*
As stars this face to emulate the last,
Oh ! might we draw our omens from the past,
Some hour, propitious to our prayers, may boast
Names such as hallow still the dome we lost.

On Drury first your SIDDONS' thrilling art
O'erwhelmed the gentlest, stormed the sternest
heart ;

On Drury, GARRICK's latest laurels grew :
Here your last tears retiring ROSCIUS drew,
Sighed his last thanks, and wept his last adieu.
But still for living wit the wreaths may bloom
That only waste their odours o'er the tomb.
Such Drury claimed, and claims—nor you refuse
One tribute to revive his slumbering muse ;
With garlands deck your own MENANDER's
head ;

Nor hoard your honours idly for the dead !

Dear are the days which made our annals bright,
Ere GARRICK fled, or BRINSLEY ceased to write ;
Heirs to their labours, like all high-born heirs,
Vain of our ancestry, as they of their's.
While thus Remembrance borrows Banquo's glass,
To claim the sceptred shadows as they pass,
And we the mirror hold, where imaged shine
Immortal names, emblazoned on our line ;—
Pause—ere their feebler offspring you condemn,
Reflect how hard the task to rival them !

Friends of the Stage—to whom both Players
and Plays

Must sue alike, for pardon or for praise ;
Whose judging voice and eye alone direct
The boundless pow'r to cherish or reject :
If e'er frivolity has led to fame,
And made us blush that you forbore to blame ;
If e'er the sinking stage could condescend
To soothe the sickly taste it dare not mend :
All past reproach may present scenes refute,
And censure, wisely loud, be justly mute !—
Oh ! since your flat stamps the Drama's laws,
Forbear to mock us with misplac'd applause :
So pride shall doubly nerve the actor's pow'rs,
And reason's voice be echo'd back by our's !
This greeting o'er—the ancient rule obey'd,—
The Drama's homage by her herald paid :
Receive our welcome too—whose every tone
Springs from our hearts, and fain would win
your own.
The curtain rises—may our stage unfold
Scenes not unworthy Drury's days of old !—
Britons our judges, Nature for our guide,
Still may we please ; long—long may you preside.

PARLIAMENTARY HISTORY.

CHAP. XI.—*Catholic Claims. Orders in Council. Murder of Mr. Perceval.**

House of Commons, April 17.

A petition was presented by Mr. Whitbread, praying for "complete liberty of conscience to all subjects of the British empire;"—it was signed by nearly 9,000 names.—Another by Mr. Lyttleton from the town of Dudley, situated in the center of the iron manufactures, against the renewal of the East India Company's charter;—another by Mr. Wilberforce, from Sheffield;—another by Sir C. Mordaunt from Birmingham, both against the Orders in Council. These introduced a conversation in which Mr. Baring complained of the Licence Trade. Mr. Rose denied that licenses let in all the manufactures of France; the heavy duties they paid prevented that.

House of Lords, April 21.

Catholic Claims.

The Duke of Gloucester presented a petition against the Catholic claims, from the University of Cambridge. Several petitions were presented from towns in Ireland, in favour of the Catholic claims.

The Earl of Donoughmore, in a speech of great length, entered into this subject. He dwelt on the importance, the propriety, and the necessity of compliance; on the loyalty, bravery, and other virtues of the Irish Catholics, as displayed in our armies; on the importance of this concession, at the present moment; and the execrable policy of intolerance and persecution. He proposed to resolve the house into a committee.

His Royal Highness the Duke of Sussex spoke largely in favour of the Catholics;—on the necessity of a fair hearing of these petitioners; on the more enlightened opinions of Catholics of the present day; on the impolicy of suppressing talents and virtues; and he avowed his friendship for the petitioners, so long as they proceeded constitutionally.

Lord Redesdale was convinced that existing laws were the only security for the Protestant faith; it had not been safe formerly to trust the Catholics with power; witness the abdication of King James, and the settlement of King William: the Catholics had shewn a very improper spirit, by demanding every thing and yielding nothing.

The Marquis of Wellesley insisted on the policy of *strengthening* the empire to meet the aggressions of the enemy: he disapproved of tests; he thought the Catholics might be trusted, their paths were sufficient.

* For particulars of this atrocious act, vide Panorama, Vol. XI. p. 961.

VOL. XII. [Lit. Pan. Nov. 1812.]

Lord Liverpool thought that so far as civil considerations mingled in this religious question, it would be dangerous to comply with what was requested. There was no test act, no corporation act in Ireland; nothing requiring the people to agree with the established church. They suffered no inconvenience from believing transubstantiation, or adoring of saints, in their own way. They would not relinquish the right of a foreigner to power in this country:—he could not separate religious from temporal power. The civil effects of the power of the priest—excommunication, &c. were dreadful!

The Marquis of Downshire, Lords Byron, Moira, and Grenville supported the motion.

The Lord Chancellor, voted against the motion, after observing, that it was not restricted to the Catholics of Ireland; but included all Roman Catholics:—the house divided,

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House of Commons, April 23.

The subject of the Catholic claims was introduced by Mr. Grattan. He thought America had been lost by our obstinacy, so might Ireland be. Would they *deprive* two-thirds of the Irish people, and one-fourth of the British, of their civil liberties, for ever? The disqualifying of British subjects was an odious power of parliament. Former objections have died away, by time; let all objections now cease. There were now no petitions against the Catholics; all the petitions were for them. Not even the church had said one word in opposition. The Irish Catholic demands his *rights*.

Dr. Duigenan said the prayer of the petition could only be complied with by repealing a whole set of laws, now formed into a body—the Act of Supremacy—the Act of Uniformity—the Union with Scotland, &c. The Catholics had *actually* the same liberty as all other subjects. They demanded indeed liberty of conscience, but they allowed no liberty of conscience to others: they demanded liberty to fill certain places at the expence of the Protestants;—who must then turn out. He denied the reported numbers of the Catholic population in Ireland. He denied the wealth attributed to them; their real property did not exceed one part in 49 of the whole kingdom. Of the Irish regiments many, or most, of the officers were Protestants.

Sir J. C. Hippesley supported the motion. The pontifical oath so much objected to, importing the persecution of heretics, had been modified, on the demand of the Empress Catharine of Russia: the obnoxious words, *hereticus persequeat et oppugnato*, were omitted, and another clause substituted: an addition

was also made expressly for his majesty's subjects, " all this I swear as not being contrary to the allegiance I owe to the king of Great Britain." He feared he should disappoint many zealous friends of emancipation, by declaring that the *veto* ought to be granted on the part of the Catholic clergy.

Mr. W. Banks was glad that after so many years this question was brought within narrow limits. All the violent declamation formerly heard, was now sunk down to *expediency*. Can these claims be supported by expediency? He thought not. If ever the Catholics obtained power—we judge of the future from the past—the expediency will be felt; severely too. He knew the house would not endure the cry of *No Popery*! Had the gentlemen opposite never used that cry? never inflamed the minds of the people? He knew that if the English peasant doubted of something under the name of *No Popery*! the Irish peasant asked for something under the name of *Emancipation*, of which he knew as little.

Lord Binning, Mr. Vernon, Mr. Marryat, and others supported the motion.—*Debate adjourned.*

April 25.

Sir W. Scott vindicated the petition from Oxford against the Catholic claims: it had passed by a majority of 136 against 35. These were learned and considerate men. The perseverance in this question was extraordinary!—year after year! A subject calculated to excite discordant passion, yet never suffered to rest. Could Roman Catholic counsellors, if admitted, guard the established, the Protestant church? He thought to entrust such persons as could patronize some late publications, would be to betray the church—to destroy it. Would Ireland be lost by refusing these claims?—No; allegiance was too strongly felt by the Irish.

Mr. Elliot and Mr. Brougham, with many other gentlemen, spoke at large in favour of the motion; Mr. Yorke, with many others, against it.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer thought this was not the moment, in his judgment, to enter on this question; yet there was the strongest probability that such a time would come. He thought the question exhausted. He saw no benefit that could arise from going into a committee. The petition could not be granted without *guards*; none were proposed; not even the *veto* was acceded to! the Catholics themselves had rejected it; not the British government.

The house divided,

For the motion	215
Against it	300

April 27.

Thanks voted to the Earl of Wellington for the capture of Badajos:—Mored in the

House of Lords by Lord Liverpool; in the House of Commons by Mr. Perceval. Also thanks to the officers, army, &c.

House of Commons, April 28.

Orders in Council.

Lord Stanley opened the debate by depicting the extreme distress occasioned by these orders; remittances had fallen in the ratio of 100 to 30. The calamity was more extensive as well as more severe than gentlemen supposed. In some places employment was not to be had. Food, *i.e.* potatoes, oatmeal, was exceedingly increased in price. Vessels were lying useless in dock, carts, &c., were idle. He called on the house to interfere and save the country.

Mr. Rose considered what these orders were meant to oppose,—the Berlin decree; a decree which enacted that the whole island of Great-Britain was in a state of blockade; and that British goods in all parts of the world,—suppose found on board an American vessel on the coast of China, were to be confiscated. Was this nothing?—only a municipal regulation! After the peace of Tilsit, Buonaparte employed his army in watching the coast of Europe;—every species of violence was wreaked on the British trade; it was then we issued the Order of November 1807.—Next came out the Milan decree, by which every ship was declared *denationalized*, and to be treated as English property, which had been visited by an English vessel. In April 1809, an Order in Council modified that of Nov. 1807: soon followed the decree of Rambouillet, which seized all American property within the grasp of France. Let these *denationalizing* decrees be repealed,—this country repeals her Orders. Did any man think that if these Orders were repealed America would return to amity? America told us, we must *give up our principles of blockade*;—told us so in published papers. The repeal of these Orders would open the ports of France to trade; America would supply them. Our trade to the continent of Europe is now 183 millions. The exports to North America, indeed, were only 2 millions; but to other states of America 11 millions. Mr. Gallatin's paper proved that the export of America to Britain was 20 millions of dollars; to France only one million. In 1810, we had employed 6,000 foreign ships; last year only 3,000. Mr. R. defended the licence system. He would not oppose a committee.

After further debate the ministers admitted the propriety of ascertaining the facts of the case, in a committee, which was appointed accordingly, and sat *de die in diem*. It was, together with the discussion of the Bill for suppressing Riots, the main part of the business of the house, till May 11, the day of Mr. Perceval's murder.

POLITICAL PERISCOPE.

Panorama Office, Oct 26, 1812.

THIS scene which opens with this month's Periscope on our dazzled eyes is too astonishing to allow any other the precedence. That man's heart is harder than adamant, who can contemplate thousands and myriads of his fellow men, swept into eternity, in the short space of one revolving sun, without an agony of compassionate sensibility. Nor is this all: town after town, city after city, consumed by devouring flames, glare before him, and smouldering ruins meet him at every turn, as he traces the path of combat, and the horrors of conquest. Did then these men cast no care ere they attained to manhood? did no maternal anxieties foster their infant days, their rising years? was their juvenile vigour the object of no expectation? had no hopes centered on them, nor hoary hairs placed dependence on their pious and affectionate exertions?

What avails the dependence of hoary hairs, or the expectations of blooming youth? What avail the tendernesses of parental affection, the early or the late solicitudes of maternal anxiety? War delights to frustrate all these! The monster quaffs with glee the gore of thousands flowing o'er the plain; and answers in shouts of thundering joy, the groans of dying heaps, the echoing crash of rolling flames, and falling habitations. He dances on the earth which trembles as they sink in ruin. Volley'd lightnings blaze now where distance alone was lately thought ample security; and the extremes of Europe meet in dreadful conflict: how much further shall the freaks of ambition extend its ravages?

To this horrid picture—no creation of fancy!—but a simple, historic, and unimpeachable exhibition, it is our duty at this time to call the attention of our countrymen. Britons! would you know from what direful extremities it has pleased Providence hitherto to exempt you—look at what Russia is suffering now. With that country the enemy had made peace—(*Peace!*) in what has peace ended? He had contracted friendship:—mark its result! The two Emperors “made one common cause:”—see the consequences! They were sworn brothers; let the unusual ravages of war declare for what purpose! Long ago we predicted horrors;—but that they would equal what our eyes behold, exceeded, we confess, our conceptions; as they now exceed all powers of description.

It is necessary that we confine ourselves to simple facts, that posterity may in these pages read the punishment of that temporary amity in which Russia was involved with Napoleon; and may trace in our records the visi-

tation of the secrecy, the treachery, the craft, of Tilsit. Happy the man whom humble life leads far from such tremendous guilt!

Whose crimes confin'd,
Forbid to wade through slaughter to a throne
And shut the gates of mercy on mankind.

There remains yet one more duty imposed on us by circumstances; the iron heart which could see Wilna, Smolensko, Wiasma, Moscow, burning! and seated amid “an ocean of fire,” could triumph in the blaze; how intense were its gratification might sit and see London instead of Moscow engulfed in one vast deluge of fire, rolling its impetuous waves with overwhelming fury, while beam remained on beam, or brick on brick! —

This let our countrymen consider: the thought sickens us at heart! We know, that as a people justice may punish us: but we have never—never leagued with the tyrant,—though repeatedly solicited to that honour! Our hostility to his character, to his policy, to his measures, has hitherto been our safety. May Providence and perseverance prove our permanent salvation!

The progress of this calamitous invasion, is marked by such atrocities, and the whole is so singular a combination of evils, that we suppose a sketch of the leading events will be acceptable to our readers, as well as this moment, as for future consultation.

In our Periscopes for July and August we noticed the commencement of Buonaparte's invasion of Russia. He declared war against that power June 22: he crossed the Niemen, the river which bounded the Russian territories, on the 25th. He entered Wilna, the capital of Russian Poland, on the 28th. He entered Witebsk July 29. He advanced to Smolensko August 18,—to Wiasma August 29.—This progress was attended with many fierce conflicts; but the most dreadful of all was at Borodino, Sept. 7.

The anxious desire of Buonaparte was to destroy the Russian army in one immense mass: the policy of the Russians was to lose ground rather than lives; and to retire fiercely fighting; at the same time rendering the acquisitions of the enemy of no use to him. With this intention when Buonaparte entered Wilna, the metropolis of Polish Russia, the Russians *burnt the bridges, and the magazines*: they withdrew all civil and military functionaries, removed the archives and registers, and no doubt, all the population that chose to follow them.

July 25, the battle of Ostrovno. During his continuance at Witebsk, Buonaparte informs us in his bulletin, that he had “sent his army into quarters of refreshment.” The necessity for this refreshment was owing to the destructive fire of the Russians, not to the heat of the weather, of which the Cor-

sican affects to complain. By comparing the date (Aug. 4) with that of a *Senatus Consultum* (Sept. 1) ordering a new conscription of 120,000 French youths of nineteen years of age, we find that at this period, and while in these quarters of refreshment, Buonaparte found this violent measure necessary to recruit his ranks. We insert this document.

Senatus Consultum of Sept. 1, 1812, relative to the recruiting of the Army.

Napoleon, by the Grace of God and the Constitution, Emperor of the French, King of Italy, &c.

Art. 1. *One hundred and twenty thousand men*, of the conscription for 1813, shall be placed at the disposition of the minister of war, for recruiting the army.

Art. 2. They shall be taken from among the French born between the 1st of January and 31st of December, 1793.

Art. 3. *Seventeen thousand men* taken from the conscription of 1813, among those who shall not be called upon to form a part of the active army, shall be destined, according to 5th. and 11th articles of the *Senatus Consultum* of the 13th of March, and of the 14th article of the Decree of the 14th of March, to replace the men wanting to complete the cohorts of the first ban of the National Guard; and placed at the disposal of the minister of war, who will call upon them should there be occasion.

(Signed) CAMBACERES, President.

LATOUR MAUBOURG, } Sects.
Count BOISSY D'ANGLAS, }

Done the 4th Sept. 1812.

(Signed) NAPOLEON.

In all one hundred and thirty-seven thousand men!

That this vote could pass at Paris, be sent to Buonaparte, near Moscow, and receive his signature in four days, may be believed—by Frenchmen!—No: he signed it beforehand, and ordered it to be passed.

Our inference is, that if the proportion of Frenchmen, exclusively, was at least 120,000, the entire loss of his army, consisting of Germans, Prussians, Spaniards, Italians, Poles, &c. &c. was beyond calculation. What an arithmetic to be summed up by humanity!

We thought much of the battles of Austerlitz and Jena, of Asperne and Wagram, but it appears to be beyond denial that they were mere children's play to that of Borodino, fought Sept. 7. We insert a sketch of this from the French bulletin; because it shews that from his previous combats, Buonaparte found it necessary to employ every art to obtain an advantage. He passes one whole day in reconnoitring, a thing he scarcely did be-

fore in his life! He states the necessity of victory, to his troops. He loses, by his own confession, general after general; and three times as many men, as in the battle of Asperne. He acknowledges equal forces; contrary to his custom. He had, we believe, the advantage in some parts of a line so extensive: in other parts, he was certainly defeated and pursued.

From the Eighteenth Bulletin of the French Army.

Mojaisk, Sept. 10, 1812.

" On the 4th the Emperor set out from Ghjai, and encamped near Gritneva.

" The 5th, at six o'clock in the morning, the army put itself in motion.

" On the 6th, at two o'clock in the morning, the Emperor surveyed the enemy's advanced posts: the day was passed in reconnoitring. The enemy were in a position much contracted,.....though strong and favourable.

" It was easy to manœuvre, and to oblige the enemy to evacuate it, but that would have been renouncing our object, and the position was not judged sufficiently strong to render it necessary to avoid fighting. It was easy to perceive that the redoubts were but half formed, the fosse shallow, and neither palisaded nor defended with chevaux-de-frise. We reckoned the enemy's force at about 120 or 130,000 men. Our forces were equal, but the superiority of our troops was not doubtful.

" On the 7th, at two in the morning, the Emperor was surrounded by the Marshals in the position taken the evening before. At half-past five o'clock, the sun rose without clouds: it had rained the preceding evening. Though but the month of September, it was as cold as a December in Mora in. The following order of the day was read:—

" Soldiers! behold the field of battle you have much so desired! Henceforth victory depends on you: it is NECESSARY to us; it will give us PLENTY, GOOD QUARTERS for the winter, and a SPEEDY RETURN TO YOUR COUNTRY. Behave yourselves as you did at Austerlitz, at Friedland, Vitebsk, at Smolensk: that the latest posterity may speak of your conduct this day with pride—that it may say of you, " He was at that great battle under the walls of Moscow."

" At the Imperial Camp on the heights of Borodino, 7th Sept. Three o'clock, a. m.

" At six o'clock, General Count Sorbier, who had armed the battery on the right with the artillery of the reserve of the guard, commenced the fire. At half past six General Compans was wounded; at seven the Prince of Eckmühl had his horse killed. The attack advanced; the musketry commenced. The

Vice-Roy, who formed our left, attacks and carries the village of Borodino, which the enemy could not defend; that village being on the left bank of the Kologha. At seven the Marshal Duke of Elchingen put himself in motion, and under the protection of sixty pieces of cannon, which General Foucher had placed the evening before against the enemy's centre, bore upon the centre. *A thousand pieces of cannon spread death on all sides.*

" At eight o'clock the positions of the enemy were carried, his redoubts taken, and our artillery crowned his heights. The enemy saw the battle lost, which he thought had only commenced. A part of his artillery was taken; the rest was withdrawn to his lines in the rear. In this extremity he attempted to restore the combat, and to attack with all his masses those strong positions which he was unable to protect. Three hundred pieces of French cannon placed on these heights, thundered upon his masses, and his soldiers died at the foot of those parapets which they had raised with so much labour, and as a protecting shelter.

" There still remained to the enemy his redoubts to the right. General Count Morand marched thither, and carried them; but at nine in the morning, attacked on all sides, he could not maintain himself there. The enemy, encouraged by this advantage, made his reserve and his last troops advance to try his fortune again. The Imperial Guards formed a part of them. He attacked our centre, which formed the pivot to our right. For a moment it was feared that he might carry the village, which was burnt; the division Friant advanced thither: 80 pieces of French cannon immediately arrest, and then annihilate the enemy's columns, which stood for two hours in close order, under the chain-shot, not daring to advance, unwilling to retire, and renouncing the hope of victory.

" It was now two in the afternoon; the enemy had lost all hope; the battle was ended, the cannonade still continued; the enemy fought for retreat and safety, but no longer for victory.

" The loss of the enemy is enormous; from 12 to 13,000 men, and from 8 to 9000 Russian horses, have been counted on the field of battle: 60 pieces of cannon and 5000 prisoners have remained in our power.

" We have had 2500 killed, and thrice that number wounded. Our total loss may be estimated at 10,000 men; that of the enemy, at from 40 to 50,000. Never was there seen such a field of battle.

" We have lost the General of Division Montbrun, killed by a cannon-ball; General Count Caulaincourt, who was sent to occupy his place, was killed by a shot of the same kind, an hour afterwards.

" The Generals of brigade Compere,

Plauzanne, Marion, and Huart, were killed; seven or eight generals were wounded. We fired 60,000 cannon-shot.

" The Emperor was NEVER EXPOSED; neither the foot nor horse guards were engaged, or lost a single man. Had the enemy, driven from his entrenchments, not endeavoured to retake them, our loss would have been greater than his; but he destroyed his army by keeping it, from eight o'clock till two, under the fire of our batteries, and in obstinately attempting to regain that which was lost."

Lord Cathcart, the British Ambassador at St. Petersburg, in a dispatch dated Sept. 19, says, " Sept. 7, under cover of a thick mist, the French attacked the Russian left with great impetuosity, and with all the means and successions of fresh troops that they have hitherto employed in their most desperate exertions.

" They were received by the divisions of grenadiers belonging to the left wing, commanded by Prince Bagration; and the centre of the Russian line having in its turn attacked the mass directed against the left, the affair became general. The enemy are stated to have covered their retreat by the Wittenberg infantry, and by large corps of cavalry. Gen. Platow, however, with the Cossacks, followed them, and killed or took great numbers.

" The enemy retreated upwards of 13 wersts.

" I have seen letters from distinguished officers of great experience; they consider this as by far the most dreadful and destructive engagement they ever witnessed, infinitely beyond that of Prussian Eylau. I have not heard the Russian loss estimated at less than 25,000 men. The loss of the French should be infinitely greater, because of the pursuit, and because the fire of their artillery ceased at an early hour, while that of the Russians continued as long as the guns could be brought to bear."

Extract of a Letter from St. Petersburg.

" The important news of the battle of Borodino arrived at St. Petersburg in the night of the 10th of September. Next day a solemn *Te Deum* was sung at the conventional church of St. Alexander Newski: his majesty the Emperor, always ready to appreciate merit, and to reward distinguished services, has appointed Prince Kutusoff marshal general.

" The report from Marshal Kutusoff is dated from the field of battle, in the night of the 7th and 8th of September. Later accounts announce this battle as one of the most sanguinary ever recorded in the annals of war;—that the troops fought with unexampled fury;—that the Emperor Napoleon made incredible

efforts to turn the left flank of the Russian army; and it was not till after sacrificing the flower of his troops that he yielded the field of battle. The French are stated to have lost 17,000 in killed, and the total of their troops placed *hors de combat* is estimated at 45,000. The marshals Dukes of Elchingen and Dantzig were wounded: a number of other generals were killed or made prisoners. Even on the 5th of Sept. there were 4 eagles and 8 cannons taken; the Russians remained masters of the field, and made 4000 prisoners.

"On this memorable day the Russian generals, officers, and soldiers all rivalled each other in zeal and intrepidity. Marshal Kutusoff was obliged to yield to the reiterated intreaties of the Russian Imperial Guards, that they might participate in the action; but the marshal wishing them to remain at the points which he had assigned to them permitted only one company from each regiment to signalise itself against the enemy.

"A number of divisions, all the reserve of the left wing, and the greater part of the guards, as well as the armed force (militia) of Moscow, were not at all engaged. They form, therefore, so many fresh troops at the marshal's disposal. The governor general of Moscow, Count Rostopchin, has contributed very much, both by his conduct and example, to electrify the inhabitants of that capital, who breathe nothing but hatred and vengeance against the hordes which the south has poured forth upon the powerful regions of the north."

The Russians, it is understood, buried the dead on the field of battle, which occupied 5000 men for three days! In the mean time, the grand *corps de réserve* of the French army arriving, consisting of 30,000 men, the Russian general found himself obliged to retire, and abandon Moscow to its fate. He took up a position about fifteen or twenty miles south of that city, to which the French advanced.

From the Nineteenth Bulletin of the French Army, dated Moscow, Sept. 16.

"On the 14th, at midnight, we entered Moscow. The enemy had raised on the Sparrow Mountain, two wersts from the city, some redoubts, which he abandoned.

"The city of Moscow is as large as Paris; it is an extremely rich city, full of palaces of all the nobles of the empire. The Russian governor, Rostopchin, wished to ruin this fine city when he saw it abandoned by the Russian army. He had armed 3000 malefactors whom he had taken from the dungeons; he also summoned together 6000 satellites, and distributed arms among them from the arsenal.

"Our advanced guard, arrived in the cen-

tre of the city, was received by a fire of musketry, which issued from the Kremlin. The King of Naples ordered a battery of a few pieces of cannon to be opened, dispersed this rabble, and took possession of the Kremlin. We have found in the arsenal 60,000 muskets, and 120 pieces of cannon, on their carriages. The most complete anarchy reigned in the city; some drunken madmen ran through the different quarters, and everywhere set fire to them. The governor Rostopchin had caused all the merchants and shopkeepers to be carried off, through whose instrumental order might have been re-established. He had taken the precaution of carrying off the firemen with the fire-engines; so that the most complete anarchy has desolated this great and fine city, and the flames are devouring it. We have found in it considerable resources of every kind.

"The Emperor is lodged in the Kremlin, which is in the centre of the city, like a kind of citadel, surrounded by high walls.

From the Twentieth Bulletin, dated Sept. 17.

"Moscow is the *entrepot* of ASIA and of Europe. Its warehouses were immense; every house was provided for eight months with necessaries of every description.

"Moscow, one of the finest and richest cities in the world, is no more. On the 14th the Russians set fire to the Exchange, to the Bazar, and the Hospital. On the 16th a violent wind arose. Three or four hundred ruffians set fire to the city in 500 different places at the same moment, by order of the governor Rostopchin. Five-sixths of the houses were built of wood; the fire spread with a prodigious rapidity; it was an OCEAN OF FLAME. Churches, of which there were 1600; above 1000 palaces, immense magazines; nearly all has fallen a prey to the flames. The Kremlin has been preserved.

"The richest commercial houses in Russia are ruined. The shock must be considerable. The clothing, the magazines, and the equipments of the Russian army have been consumed. They have reduced to beggary 200,000 respectable inhabitants. This is the crime of Rostopchin.

"The resources which the army had found are consequently much diminished; however, we have collected, and are still collecting, a number of necessaries.

"The temperature is still that of autumn. The soldiers have found and continue to find a number of pelisses and furs for the winter. Moscow was the depot of those articles."

From the Twenty-first Bulletin, dated Moscow, Sept. 20.

"Three hundred incendiaries have been arrested and shot; they were provided with

fusees six inches long, which they held between two pieces of wood ; they had also grenades, which they threw upon the roofs of the houses. The wretch Rostopchin had these prepared on the pretence that he wished to send a balloon, full of combustible matter, amidst the French army. He thus got together the grenades and other materials necessary.

" The fires subsided on the 19th and 20th ; three quarters of the city are burned ; among other palaces that beautiful one of Catharine, which had been newly furnished : not above a quarter of the houses remain.

" Manufactures were beginning to flourish at Moscow ; they are destroyed. The conflagration of this capital will throw Russia one hundred years back.

" The weather is becoming rainy ; the greatest part of the army is in barracks in Moscow."

The confused narration in these bulletins, which describes the entry of the French into Moscow, with the circumstances of the conflagration of that city, has occasioned various conjectures as to the real origin of the fire. Buonaparte entered Moscow on the 14th, in the afternoon. He says the Russians burnt the Bank, the Exchange, &c. that day ; but on the 16th it was set fire to, generally, by the Russians appointed for that purpose by Rostopchin. Could it be set on fire in this regular and determined manner if the French were in settled and established possession of it ? We conjecture that the 14th, 15th, and 16th were spent in hard fighting within the city itself : and that finding resistance vain, the governor at length set fire to what was now become the property of the French : probably many Frenchmen perished in the flames ! That it is the continuation of the Russian plan—that it was foreseen and predetermined we think credible, from the French accounts of the burning of other towns, and of the condition of Moscow previous to the battle of Borodino.

Let those who suppose that the occupation of Moscow by the enemy never entered into the contemplation of the Russians, recollect the proclamation they issued on breaking up from their entrenched camp at Drissa : especially the following sentences.—

" He would march to Moscow. Let him ! — But can he, by the temporary possession of that city, conquer the Empire of Russia, and subjugate a population of thirty millions ! "

" Already are our allies preparing to menace the rear of the invader ; whilst he, invigilat too far to retreat with impunity, shall soon have to combat with the seasons, and with innumerable armies of Russians ! "

The following are from various French letters, published by authority, of course. They describe the burning of other towns

previous to that of Moscow ; which, in fact, were so many preparatives to that dreadful catastrophe.

" The enemy's army, in retiring, *burn the bridges* and *destroy the roads*, in order to retard the march of the French army as much as possible." —

" The commercial establishments at Smolensk were quite untouched. On the Borysthenes, is a fine suburb, *to which the Russians set fire*, for the sole purpose of *retarding* our march a single hour. Never was war conducted with so much inhumanity : the Russians treat their own country as they would that of an enemy. The country is fine, and abundantly supplied with every thing. The roads are admirable." —

" Smolensk was *set on fire by the Russians*. They set *fire to the suburbs on the day after the battle*, when they saw our bridge established over the Borysthenes. They also set *fire to Dorogobon, to Viasma, and to Ghiai* ; but the French came up in time to extinguish it. This may be easily conceived. The French have no interest in burning those towns that belong to them, and in depriving themselves of the resources which they afford. The cellars have been every where filled with brandy, leather, and every species of article that is useful to an army.

" If the country be wasted, if the inhabitants suffer more than a state of war warrants, the fault is in the Russians." —

Extract of a Letter from Smolensk, Aug. 23. — " The Russians have been so faithful to their system of retreat, that they are retiring to Moscow, and from thence, probably, they will go and take a position on the Volga, and perhaps farther. We have yet two months before us. All the inhabitants of the country tell us that the month of September is magnificent here ; and that the bad weather does not begin till the end of October. From the reports we receive from Moscow the greatest terror reigns there. Though travellers boast of the hospitality of the nobles in that city, the latter are *making haste to carry off their effects*. They are *packing up their pictures and archives*. We care little about this, if they leave us their wine and cooks. The women of Smolensk are pretty enough, but almost all are fled to Moscow, from whence they will fly to Petersburg, where they are not more quiet."

" Gen. Count Caulaincourt entered Viasma on the 29th August, at day-break.

" The enemy had *burned the bridges, and set fire to the several quarters of the city*. Viasma is a town of 15,000 inhabitants : there are 4000 burghers, merchants, and artisans ; there are 32 churches. Considerable resources in flour, soap, drugs, &c. and large magazines of brandy, were found.

" The Russians burnt the magazines ; and

the finest houses in the town were on fire at our arrival.

Paris, Sept. 20.—"Private letters from the grand army state, that according to all appearances that army will approach near Moscow about the 6th or 7th of September. The same letters add, that a great number of families have left that city, in which the greatest fermentation prevails.

"Moscow is delivered up to all the agitation which precedes a great event. The nobility and rich inhabitants of that ancient capital are packing up and sending off their most valuable property; and are making arrangements themselves to abandon a city which they despair of seeing defended by an army in full rout."

The following is from Russian authority, previous to the fact.

"Advices from St. Petersburg, dated the 6th September, confirm the arrival, in the Russian capital, of the Emperor Alexander. No official report had appeared of the battles of Smolensk and Valontina. Several families had arrived at St. Petersburg from Moscow; and they write from the former city as if the fall of Moscow was anticipated, in the contemplation of which they do not discover the smallest symptom of despair as to the successful result of the cause of Russia. Fresh reinforcements had been sent off to Moscow, and also instructions from the Emperor, to destroy every thing valuable, or that might be useful to the enemy, in the city, as soon as his obtaining it by force appeared probable."

Paris, Oct. 13.—Private letters from Moscow of the 25th of September contain fresh details, the authenticity of which we will guarantee, respecting the catastrophe which happened in that city.

Never was destructive combination better combined. The agents of Rostopchin, that is to say, 5000 banditti, to whom he had opened the prison doors, proceeded with torches in their hands to different parts of the city, and, to render the fire more destructive, they observed from what side the wind blew, to burn all the buildings to windward. In many houses were found all sorts of combustibles, which, when discovered, our soldiers found impossible to extinguish.

It was the prompt arrival of our troops which saved the Kremlin, all these facts explain how the fire began in buildings and uninhabited houses. The superb building of the bank was almost entirely consumed before the iron gates could be penetrated, and an entrance made. The firemen had been obliged to quit the unfortunate city."

If then the Russian nobles had packed up their valuables,—if the principal families had early left the city,—if, at last, the whole population was carried off by the Governor—

then we infer that Buonaparte is in possession of—an empty town! The town that was about to be abandoned by its inhabitants was neither stocked with provisions, nor with valuables:—all he can say in praise of the abundance he finds in it, will but confirm us in the opinion that he enjoys A PLENTIFUL SCARCITY. Let us wait his opinion at the close of the winter.

In the mean while the Emperor and King assures his good citizens of Paris, that he is very comfortable in Moscow; and has plenty of eatables, drinkables, wearables, and consumables: all the necessaries, comforts, conveniences, and luxuries of life!!

"Very comfortable in Moscow." VERY! The Emperor's facetious assurance reminds us of the scarcely less facetious Quin's address to Rich the manager. At the end of a long vacation occasioned by theatrical ambition, Quin found his pocket too light, of which becoming impatient, he wrote to Rich,

"I am at Bath.

QUIN."

The mighty monarch replied

"Stay there, and be —

RICH."

The Panorama has been accused of wishing to see Buonaparte in Moscow:—there he is, according to his (and our) wishes. We now ask, what is he likely to get by his situation? — Observe! The population and provisions are removed, and the city is burnt.

We should not be at all surprised to hear of the Emperor and King, with King Joachim, and all his marshals, being obliged to quit this delightful residence, to save his bacon, before winter comes in and renders his retreat impracticable.

If the Russians can now cut off his convoys, and prevent assistance from reaching him, he is as welcome to his situation as Massena was to his before Lisbon. If he comes out alive, we shall blame the Russian Generals. Not that he is deprived of every thing in Moscow; but, what miserable shelters from a Russian winter for a large army can barracks be, formed of burnt timbers, and dug into damp cellars? The officers, however may do well enough; there are streets of houses built of good materials, brick and stone, besides the Kremlin. The climate will severely affect his troops. Provisions the city affords none: the time for laying in winter supplies was not arrived. Surely the Russian armies can drive the country around him. The stories of ammunition, &c. found by the French, we do not believe. It is understood that Buonaparte has sent messages to the Emperor Alexander to mention peace: they have been rejected. What has he to offer?—a train of desolated provinces, towns consumed by fire, and Mos-

cow in ruins! If the Russians had anticipated peace, in the remotest manner, they would not have burnt the *ancient and holy* capital of their empire.

The appeal of the Emperor to his subjects on this affecting occasion merits preservation.

FOR THE INFORMATION OF THE PUBLIC.

[*By order of his Imperial Majesty.*]

It is with a heavy heart we are compelled to inform every son of the country, that the enemy entered Moscow on the 3d (15th) of September. The glory of the Russian empire, however, is not thereby tarnished. On the contrary, every individual is inspired with fresh courage, firmness, and hope, that all the evils meditated against us by our enemies, will eventually fall upon their own heads. The enemy has not become master of Moscow, by overcoming, or weakening our forces: the commander-in-chief, by the advice of a council of war, has found it expedient to retire at a moment of necessity, in order by the best and most effectual means to turn the transient triumph of the enemy to his inevitable ruin. However painful it may be to Russians, to hear that the original capital of the empire is in the hands of the enemy of their country, yet it is consolatory to reflect that he is possessed merely of bare walls, containing within their circuit neither inhabitants nor provisions. The haughty conqueror imagined that on his entrance into Moscow he would become the arbiter of the whole Russian empire, when he might prescribe to it such a peace as he should think proper; but he is deceived in his expectations: he will neither have acquired the power of dictating, nor the means of subsistence. The assembled and daily increasing forces of the districts of Moscow, will not neglect to block up every avenue, and to destroy such parties as may be detached for the purpose of collecting provision; until the enemy shall perceive that his hopes of astonishing the world by the capture of Moscow were vain, and he be compelled to open a passage for himself by force.

His situation is as follows:—He entered Russia with 300,000 men, the principal part consisting of natives of different kingdoms, serving and obeying him, not from free will, —not in the defence of their respective countries,—but solely from terror. The half of this multifarious army has been destroyed, partly by our brave troops, partly by desertion, and partly by hunger and sickness: with the remainder he is come to Moscow. His audacious irruption, not only into the very heart of Russia, but into its ancient capital, will, without doubt, gratify his ambition, and give cause of boasting; but the

character of that measure must be determined by its result.

He has not entered a country where every step he takes inspires all with terror, and bends both the troops and the inhabitants to his feet. Russia is unaccustomed to subjection, and will not suffer her laws, religion, freedom, and property to be trampled upon: she will defend them to the last drop of her blood. Hitherto the general zeal against the enemy clearly evinces how powerfully our empire is guarded by the undaunted spirit of its sons. Thus, no one despairs; nor is this a time to despair, when every class of the empire is inspired with courage and firmness, when the enemy, with the remainder of his daily decreasing forces, at a distance from home, in the midst of a numerous people, is surrounded by our armies, one of which stands before him, and the other three are endeavouring to cut off his retreat, and to prevent him from receiving any fresh reinforcements,—when Spain has not only thrown off his yoke, but also threatens to invade his territories,—when the greatest part of Europe (exhausted and enslaved by him), serving him involuntarily, is anxiously and impatiently awaiting the moment when she shall tear herself from his heavy and insupportable chains,—when his own country sees no end to the torrents of its blood shed for his ambition.

In the present disastrous state of human affairs, will not that country acquire eternal fame, which, after encountering all the inevitable desolations of war, shall at last, by its patience and intrepidity, succeed in procuring an equitable and permanent peace, not only for itself, but also for other powers; nay, even for those who are unwillingly fighting against us? It is gratifying and natural for a generous nation to render good for evil.

Almighty God! turn thy merciful eye to thy supplicating Russian church. Vouchsafe courage and patience to thy people struggling in a just cause, so that they may thereby overcome the enemy; and in saving themselves, may also defend the freedom of Kings and nations.

In our last we inserted a succinct description of Moscow: it was impossible we should then foresee that it would at so early a day be **NO MORE!!** To complete our account of what that city *was*, we beg leave to add the following particulars.

ADDITIONAL DESCRIPTION OF MOSCOW.

Geographers and historians are not agreed as to the period when Moscow was built. Some of them assert that it owes its foundation to Andrew the First; others assign its

origin to the year 1300, and affirm, that it was built by the Grand Duke Juje Wladimirwitsch. It became the ordinary residence of the Czars, who successively embellished it with a great number of public buildings. It was always the seat of the head of the Russian church, and the splendour continued to increase till it became the capital of the Russian Empire.

It has fallen off since the Emperors transferred their residence to Petersburg; yet it preserves its rank as one of the capitals of Europe.

On entering the city, its vast extent, the variety and irregularity of its structures, the extraordinary contrasts it presents, strike with astonishment. Its streets are long and wide, but some only of them are paved, others are laid with the stems of trees or punks.

Nothing can be more discordant than the architecture of the public buildings. The domes of some of the churches are covered with copper, others with pewter, others are painted or gilt, and in short, others are simply of wood.

Moscow is a city, first built in the taste of Asiatic architecture, but gradually assimilated to that of Europe.

The population of Moscow is not proportionate to its extent. It contains vast parks, in which wild boars, deer, and other wild beasts, are kept. A considerable number of large gardens, and even in some quarters tillage lands, impart to the city a very picturesque appearance.

The Sloboda, or the Suburb, forms an outermost and vast enclosure, surrounding all the other quarters, it is itself enclosed by a low rampart and a ditch. Besides buildings of all kinds, it contains fields, pastures, gardens, and some little lakes, which are the source of the Neglina. The suburbs amount in number to thirty-two, they contain sixty churches and ten convents.

There is much bustle in Moscow, a crowd is continually pressing towards the quarter which contains the shops. People of all ranks and of all countries are to be seen there; it is the chief promenade of the women of the first rank in the city, who repair thither to make their purchases.

Besides the cathedral is the ancient palace of the Patriarchs, where are preserved the entire treasures of the church, and the manuscripts which were formerly in the library of the Synods. There are a great many of them, but they are heaped up on shelves and covered with dust; there are eight presses filled with Slavonic manuscripts. There is a wooden box without a lid, in which is kept a manuscript gospel, written in Greek upon parchment; it is of the fourth century, and is in a state of rapid decay.

The palace of the Czars is in a Gothic

edifice, without any regular plan, and built in different orders of architecture; it is a mass of grotesque building; the upper part of it is heavy and covered with several small spires and gilt globes. A great part of the front is ornamented with the arms of the various provinces which compose the Russian monarchy. It contains a portrait of Peter the Great, taken when he was very young, in the uniform of a serjeant; the clothes of Catharine I., of Peter II., of Anne and of Elizabeth; the throne of Peter I., and his brother; the jack boots which Peter used to wear on days of ceremony, also a pair with nails in the heels, which were to be worn on the Epiphany, or the day of the benediction of the water upon the ice; and immense quantity of dishes, vases, cups, basins, gold and silver candlesticks; several thrones studded with precious stones, a throne presented by a Sophi of Persia; the crowns of Siberia, of Casan, of Astracan; those of Anne, of Peter II., and Elizabeth, and several others, all made of gold, and studded with oriental pearls and precious stones; a clock, in which there is a Pope and Cardinals, who salute as they pass by him; finally, arms, antique trappings of horses, and five cannon of an extraordinary size, one piece of ordnance, in particular, which is 16 feet long, the diameter of the bore being about three feet, and the thickness of the metal eight inches; it was cast in 1694.

The lower people dwell in huts, like savages, wear long beards, get drunk with brandy on Sundays, quarrel, and become peaceable as soon as they have been sluiced with two or three buckets of water, which are usually kept ready for the purpose in places of public resort. What a contrast to the upper classes! among whom we perceive civilization, accompanied by all its luxury and all its excesses. On the 1st of May the whole city is on foot, all brilliant equipages are displayed on the road to the promenade, called the German tables, where people take refreshments in tents and under trees. The remainder of the summer they amuse themselves at Vaux Hall and the Palace-gardens; but winter is the genuine season of pleasure. The streets covered with snow are thereby made cleaner and more passable. The frozen surface of the Moskva furnishes a new promenade, and the cold of twenty-five degrees (Reaumur) has peculiar charms for the Moscovites. They then exhibit themselves in *traineur*, drawn by two horses.

There is but one national theatre at Moscow, and that is little frequented, particularly by persons of condition; it is kept down by the great number of private theatres, each nobleman having his own. It is the same with respect to the musicians to the nobles,

they are slaves; thus, nothing is more common than to find a numerous band in the house of a private individual. He has nothing to do but feed his artists, well or ill, and to clothe them decently when he sees company.

The most remarkable public foundation in Moscow, is the Foundling Hospital. It was endowed by the Empress Catherine, in 1764. There is a theatre in this hospital, the decorations of which are the work of the founders; they built it, painted it, made the dresses, and are themselves the actors.

In the course of the fourteenth century, the Tartars possessed themselves of Moscow, slaughtered the inhabitants, and reduced the city to ashes; it was soon, however, re-peopled. The barbarians took it a second time, in 1441, and committed the same excesses.—It was in a very flourishing state during the reign of Iwan Basilowitz. After having committed unheard of cruelties at Novgorod, the ferocious Iwan the 4th, on his return to Moscow, had 800 women thrown into the river, and stained the waters of the Moskua with the blood of 300 other victims, whom he caused to be executed. During the latter part of the 16th century, and a great part of the 17th, Moscow was the scene of most tragical events; there was a general massacre of the Poles within the walls. In 1717, it suffered terribly from the plague.

From the North we advert to the South:—for of Sweden or Denmark, or Austria, we have little to say; and of Prussia, nothing. Holland that was, and France that is, are suffering under the miseries of a severely urged conscription. *Yaw myn Heeren, where is your boasted liberty now? advertise for it, as for goods lost or pilfered;—Dle 't gevonden heeft en te regte brengd, zal heerlyk beloont worden!** Yes, Frenchmen! you submit to have another hundred thousand of your sons ordered to the slaughter: you deserve it:—how many more conscriptions ere twelve months are elapsed?

We were right in expecting further activity in the North of Spain. Lord Wellington has employed his time and his army in besieging the Castle of Burgos, which the French had strengthened all in their power, and in which they had left a competent garrison, and an able officer. It has already resisted two assaults; but, we hope it is on the point of falling. We see another object in the North, which his Lordship will attempt, if time permits. In the interim Soult, and Suchet have joined in the East, and with Jourdan and King Joseph, form a grand army; too much, as we guess, for the

deserts of La Mancha to sustain. The British and Spanish troops march parallel with them on an *interior circle*, and therefore may pass over more than an equal space in less time. The present appearance is that of a battle in defence of Madrid. In our judgment, the object is great to the Spaniards, not equally so to the British. But the Spanish Cortes has at length, after long debates, appointed Lord Wellington Generalissimo of their armies. This bids fair for the introduction of unity and combination into their movements; and if subordination should really follow, it will greatly accelerate the desired issue.

Since our last, war has been declared *formally*, against America, yet with a reserve calculated to place America completely in the wrong, if it continues:—the commanding officer on the station (Sir J. B. Warren) has power to restore peace, when satisfied that his *duty* dictates that measure. The first efforts of the American arms in Canada have been met with spirit by the British, and have completely failed. We confess a surprise when the Park and Lower guns announced the capture of the whole American army, acting in Upper Canada, under General Hull, by a British force, augmented by Indians, under General Brock. Like a true disciple of Buonaparte, General Hull flattered the Canadians with the term *liberty*, while he threatened them with utter extermination if they refused to yield obedience to his master, or suffered an Indian to fight by their side. He fancied he had neutralized the Indians; and reported that the Canadian militia and the British troops deserted to him, at the rate of *fifty* or *sixty* per day. His presumption has been severely punished. His friends say, he had no proper support: one of his own officers has stated that he, with others thought of displacing him; and the executive government talks of trying him out of hand. He denies them; for he is travelling with all speed to the seat of government, to meet his accusers. This affair is likely, we conjecture, to keep alive the spirit of party, at this moment acting with uncommon ardour throughout that country. Very many towns have held public meetings, have reprobated the conduct of government, have declared they will not become Frenchmen, nor coalesce with Frenchmen; and the party opposed to Madison even hope to drive him from his throne. The nephew of Gen. Hull has sunk the British frigate *Guerriere*, after a smart action (44 guns and nearly 500 men, to 38 guns and less than 300 men)—but this does not compensate the mortification endured by the American Commodore Rodgers with five or six sail, who has crossed the Atlantic, Eastward, and Westward, Northward, and Southward, to catch—the *sea-scurvy*! The

* He who has found it, and will bring it back again, shall be rewarded in a lordly manner.

fate of America depends on the ensuing election of members to Congress, and on the general disposition of that body when it meets.

Perhaps we ought to say the very same of the fate of Britain. The disposition of the Parliament now electing, is of the utmost importance to our country. We are told, that never was a scarcity of money more evident, it has left not a few of the electors in the lurch, for opposition; even where opposition presented almost a certainty of success.—

Our wishes rest on able, diligent, vigilant, and steady men. Though we have no very high opinion of King James's *Kingcraft*, yet we agree in his sentiments, as addressed to his people, on the eve of an election.

Proclamation of King James the First for a new Parliament.

[Given in Lord Bacon's Works, 3 Vols. 4to.]

“ Because the true and ancient institution of parliament, do require the lower house, at this time, if ever, to be compounded of the gravest, ablest, and worthiest members that may be found: we do hereby, out of the care of the common good, wherein themselves are participant, without all prejudice to the freedom of elections, admonish all our loving subjects, that have votes in the election of knights and burgesses, of these few points following :

“ That they cast their eyes upon the worthiest men of all sorts, knights and gentlemen, that are lights and guides in their countries, experienced parliament men, wise and discreet statesmen, that have been practised in public affairs, whether at home or abroad, grave and eminent lawyers, substantial citizens and burgesses, and generally such as are interested and have portion in the estate.

“ Secondly, that they make choice of such as are well affected in religion, without declining either on the one hand to blindness and superstition, or on the other hand to schism or turbulent disposition.

“ Thirdly, and lastly, that they be truly sensible, not to disvalue or disparage the house with bankrupts and necessitous persons, that may desire long parliaments only for protection; lawyers of mean account and estimation; young men that are not ripe for grave consultations; mean dependants upon great persons, that may be thought to have their voices under command; and such like obscure and inferior persons: so that to conclude, we may have the comfort to see before us the very face of a sufficient and well composed house, such as may be worthy to be a representative of a third estate of our kingdom, fit to nourish a loving and comfortable meeting between us and our people, and fit to be a noble instrument under the

blessing of Almighty God, and our princely care and power, and with the loving conjunction of our prelates and peers, for the settling so great affairs,” as the proper objects of Parliament.

There is every reason to believe that the Provinces of Spanish America, on the Atlantic, have generally returned to their allegiance.

This will in time, revive the intercourse, and with it trade, and support to the mother country. Miranda is sentenced to death.

AGRICULTURAL REPORT.

Essex.—The recent showers have been the means of keeping the beans and clover seed in the fields, beyond the usual time; but they are now carting in tolerable order, though perhaps the latter a little damaged. Wheat sowing is rather backward; notwithstanding, the farmers are now all busy in the fields. The drill seems to be made more use of than any preceding year; and whether the seed is planted or sown, it goes into the ground well. The lands work sufficiently fine; and should the slug or wire-worm not be too troublesome, we have the prospect of the seed taking good root. The drill system also appears to be preferred in putting in tares, and a large quantity of that kind of pulse is already in the ground, throughout this neighbourhood. The greatest number of beasts ever remembered, has been brought to the different fairs in this county; yet their price is not much reduced. Lean pigs and hogs are cheap. Turnips make a great show, particularly where the soil is congenial.

Warwickshire.—In consequence of the unusual falls of rain towards the close of the month, but little seed-wheat is yet earthed. The fallows have worked well; and are now ready for its reception. Turnips have thriven very considerably; and bid fair for a good supply of winter keep, being in general very sound and healthy. Grain of every description (notwithstanding the abundant harvest), continues its late very high prices. Lean stock is much in demand. Fat ware, except sheep, rather lower. For the sheep, serious apprehensions are entertained; they exhibiting strong symptoms of rot: this was formerly (last yearning) a partial complaint; but is now general. The potato crop was never more abundant; nor more general. Trade is dull and heavy, for want of a probable market. Wool stationary about 1s. per lb.

Suffolk.—The wheats prove a great crop; as does grain of every kind; but from this must be excepted, white peas; they prove not more than half a crop. Clover seed is about three parts of a crop. Turnips never were known to produce more feed than they do this year. We have had a fine time for planting of wheat, it is nearly half done.

STATE OF TRADE.

The produce of the West Indies and the Spanish Main has experienced in the article of cotton a considerable rise in price: on some kinds, $\frac{1}{2}$ on others 1d. Sea Island cotton 2d. per lb. The demand also continues brisk, and this notwithstanding 11,000 packages were sold in a single week only, at Liverpool, which is the great mart for the article. Speculation no doubt, has its share in this demand, though a considerable portion of it is for the supply of the Manchester trade. The same cause had also raised the price of tobacco, of which large sales have been effected: but chiefly for home consumption and for Ireland. The finer sorts therefore have risen, while the ordinary, or for exportation, has not equally advanced. The quantity at market is about 17,000 hds. Virginia, and 2,100 hds. Maryland tobacco. In general it may be said of all American goods, that in consequence of the apparently fixed determination for war, on both sides, the productions of that country are rising in our markets, as no doubt, the productions of this country are rising in that market. Rice is of uncertain price: the importers having parted with all they held, the second hand are endeavouring to obtain as large a profit as the demand will allow: they ask various prices for it, as fancy dictates. The demand for sugars of the British plantations has rather become flat; some small sales, notwithstanding, there has been little doing. The average price of sugar, as appears from the last Saturday's gazette, is 45s. 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. which is lower than our report of last month. This may be partly occasioned by the season of the year: shipments to the Baltic, being now over, or nearly over; and the same cause operates on the price of coffee, the sale of which is heavy and not to be effected without difficulty at the prices quoted. Rum, is much as before. Pimento, no variation. The late sales at the East India House were not of very great consequence; the 3,000 bags of Black pepper which were set up at 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. being withdrawn; as none were willing to purchase at that price. What was sold, was Privilege and Private-Trade which fetched 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. to 7d. one lot 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. White pepper at 18. 6d. and 18. 7d. The sales of new fruit, have been uncertain: at a late sale, red Smyrna raisins fetched 50s. and 51s. the two first lots:—the remainder of 100 barrels were withdrawn. 280 Quarter barrels of New Sun raisins, were entirely withdrawn. New Blooms £6 10. Curraints 85s. to 87s.

Baltic produce is somewhat less lively than it was. Tallow not higher. Flax, especially good sound flax, fetches higher prices than were generally looked for. The exchange is marked by the latest mail at 25d. Goods and

valuables continue to be shipped off from St. Petersburg, in consequence, no doubt, of the uncertain aspect of affairs in that country. Freight, up to £10, or even £12 per ton. The same causes have somewhat of a relative effect on all produce from that quarter: and the unsettled state of Sweden, Norway, &c. has at this time, considerable influences on sales; according to the variable appearances of affairs, or the different and changing opinions of buyers and sellers.

Bankrupts and Certificates, in the order of their dates, with the Attorneys. Extracted correctly from the London Gazette.

BANKRUPTCIES SUPERSEDED.—Sept. 22.

Griffin, Joshua, Kidderminster, Worcester, stationer.

BANKRUPTS.

Binstead, J. Chichester, Sussex, innkeeper. *Att.* Few and Co. Henrietta Street, Covent Garden.

Cheetham, S. Manchester, victualler. *Att.* Ellis, Chancery Lane.

Day, B. A. Aston, near Birmingham, brass founder. *Att.* Swain and Co. Old Jewry.

Fricker, T. Upper George Street, Mary-le-bone, plumber. *Att.* Popkin, Dean Street, Soho.

Gilesby, T. Coal Exchange, London, coal-factor. *Att.* Atcheson and Morgan, Great Winchester Street, Broad Street.

Laing, J. and T. Rattnay, East-India Chambers, merchants. *Att.* Coore, Great Winchester Street, Broad Street.

Morris, T. Greenwich Road, Kent, baker. *Att.* J. Pullen, Fore Street, Cripplegate.

Parson, W. Manchester, bookseller. *Att.* Ellis, Chancery Lane.

Ryatts, T. South Street, Sheffield, and W. Ryatts, Portsmouth, razor-makers. *Att.* Blakelock and Makinson, Sergeant's-Inn, Fleet Street.

Wade, J. Manchester, saddler. *Att.* Hardye, New Bridge Street.

CERTIFICATES.—Oct. 13.

G. Sizer, Oxford Street, silk-mercer.—R. Rainey, Size Linen merchant—Daniel Tobin and B. Jones, Mitchell, Limehouse, ship-chandlers.—S. Godfrey, Liverpool, straw hat manufacturer.—R. Fearn, Twickenham, poulticer.

BANKRUPTS.—Sept. 26.

Curtis, R. Bristol, cheesemonger. *Att.* Lambert and Sons, Bedford Row.

Hooper, C. Throgmorton Street, insurance-broker. *Att.* Hackett, Old Bethlehem, New Broad Street.

Ryalls, T. South Street, Sheffield, York, and W. Ryalls, Portsmouth, Hants, razor-makers. *Att.* Blakelock and Makinson, Sergeant's-Inn, Fleet Street.

Stroud, W. Wapping Street, St. John, ship-chandler. *Att.* Reeks, Wellclose Square.

Taylor, D. P. Boston, Lincoln, scrivener. *Att.* Hussey, Furnival's-Inn, Holborn.

CERTIFICATES.—October 17.

G. G. Ewell, Newtwich, Chester, linen and woollen-draper. Dicken, J. Portland Place, St. Mary-le-bone, surgeon and apothecary.—R. Dowling, Wapping Wall, cooper.—B. Wilson, Leeds, York, dax-spinner.—C. Davis, Birmingham, shoo-maker.—C. Waite, Aldersgate Street, haberdasher.—R. Petchell, Kingston-upon-Hull, woollen-draper.—E. Foulkes, Wilmot Street, Brunswick Square, linen-draper.—W. Clark, Kingsland, Devon, slip-seller.—T. Dyles, Great Eastcheap, chocolate maker.—R. Hadley, Upper Priory, Birmingham, victualler.—W. Griffiths, Westwood, Wilts, dyer.—J. Royle, Manchester, warehouseman.—W. Sharp, Bradford, York, candle-manufacturer.—H. Abbott, Bucklersbury, merchant.

BANKRUPTS.—Sept. 29.

Anstee, R. Walcot, Somerset, butcher. *Att.* Shephard and Co. Bedford Row.

Bowzer, F. W. G. Overton, and L. Oliver, Hirwain, Brecknock, iron-masters. *Att.* E. Bigg, Southampton Buildings, Chancery Lane.

Campbell, J. Throgmorton Street, merchant. *Att.* Holt, Throgmorton Street.

Geddes, A. and G. Evans, Upper East Smithfield, bottle and flint glass merchants. *Att.* Swain and Co. Old Jewry.

Mackenzie, A. J. and Henry Roper, Cross Street, Finsbury Square, merchants. *Att.* Druce, Billiter Square, Fenchurch Street.

CERTIFICATES.—October 20.

John Shillito, Great Tower Street, plumber—W. Lucas, Hobbeach Marsh, Lincoln, jobber—T. Carter, Charles Street, Northampton Square, jobber—T. Perkins, Hillhampton, Worcester, dealer—Stephen Hall, Bristol, ironmonger—G. E. Fidler, Oxford Street, jeweller—S. Holroyd, Sheffield, manufacturer—T. Salter, Bagnigge Wells, victualler—B. Stephenson, Leeds, merchant—J. Heelis, Bolton-le-Moors, Lancaster, corn-dealer—J. Waller, Lime Street, merchant.

BANKRUPTS.—Oct. 8.

Brierley, J. Sheepwashers, near Oldham, Lancaster, cotton-spinner. *Att.* Beetham, Cowper's Court, Cheshire, J. D. Bolton, Lancaster, whistler. *Att.* Medowcroft, Gray's Inn. **Davidson, W. E.** South Blyth, Northumberland block and mast-maker. *Att.* Atkinson and Co. Chancery Lane. **Howell, J.** Survey Street, Strand, tailor. *Att.* Parnell and Raffles, Church Street, Spitalfields. **Pontefex, D. C.** Holborn, silk-mercer. *Att.* Walker, Chancery Lane. **Read, J.** Ringwood, Southampton, maltster. *Att.* Dean, New Inn. **Lambden, H.** Bristol, pin-manufacturer. *Att.* Sweet and Stokes, Basinghall Street. **Long, J. J.** Minorities, mercer. *Att.* Walker, Chancery Lane. **Young, J. G.** Percy Street, St. Pancras, builder. *Att.* Smith, Bedford Row.

CERTIFICATES to be granted on or before Oct. 24.

C. Hayter, jun. Staines, smith—M. Tucker, Tiverton, Devonshire, milliner—T. Phillips, Plough Court, Lombard Street, merchant—R. Anderson, Birmingham, cutter—J. Grimshaw, Manchester, music-seller—G. Alston, Plymouth, builder—J. W. A. Snuggs, Lime Street, merchant—J. Simon, Portsea, slop-seller—A. Areen, Sparkes's Court, Duke's Place, spectacle-maker—W. Townsend, Wapping Wall, ironmonger—A. Main, Liverpool, merchant—I. Meaght, Selby, Yorkshire, grocer.

BANKRUPTS.—Oct. 8.

Bearchell, W. Bell Lane, Spitalfields, glass-manufacturer. *Att.* Bennett, New Inn Buildings, Wych Street. **Buckley, J.** Mossley, Lancaster, innkeeper. *Att.* Battye, Chancery Lane. **Cock, G.** Work, Wells, Somerset, miller. *Att.* Blesdale and Co. New Inn. **Denton, R.** Basteap, chocolate-maker. *Att.* Pope, Modiford Court, Fenchurch Street. **Eaton, J.** Crooked Lane, Canon Street, trunk-maker. *Att.* Washbrough, Sun Court, Cornhill. **Gregory, J. W.** Fishbourne, and S. Mappin, Sheffield, York, cutters. *Att.* Battye, Chancery Lane. **Hanson, J.** St. John Street, Clerkenwell, innkeeper. *Att.* Wilkinson and Greenwood, Queen Street, Cheshire. **Irish, S. P.** King Street, Soho, tailor. *Att.* Pike, Air Street, Piccadilly. **Lambden, H.** Bristol, pin-manufacturer. *Att.* Sweet and Stokes, Basinghall Street. **Marsham, W.** Winchmore Hill, Middlesex, stockbroker. *Att.* Hine, Hall Staircase, Inner Temple. **Mair, T.** Broad Street Buildings, merchant. *Att.* Swain and Co. Old Jewry. **Miles, R.** Brompton, Kent, tallow-chandler. *Att.* James, Earl Street, Blackfriars. **Multhorpe, A.** New Bridge Street, Vauxhall, ironmonger. *Att.* Rogers and Son, Manchester Buildings, Westminster. **Solomon, J. and M. Solomon,** Mitre Court, Aldgate, watch-manufacturers. *Att.* Isaacs, Bay Street, St. Mary Axe. **Seaby, T.** Ipswich, Suffolk, upholsterer. *Att.* Reditt, Cook's Court, Carey Street. **Steele, J.** Fullwood, Lancaster, skinner. *Att.* Windle, John Street, Bedford Row. **Sheppard, J.** Marland Mill, Lancaster, corn-miller. *Att.* Hurd, King's Bench Walks, Temple. **Tyler, J.** Mountsorrel, Leicester, miller. *Att.* Sandys and Co. Crane Court, Fleet Street.

CERTIFICATES.—Oct. 27.

J. B. Pooley, H. Kensington, W. Styan, and D. Adams, London, bankers.—J. Stein, J. T. R. and R. Smith, Fenchurch Street, merchants.—O. Peil, Liverpool, merchant.—T. Fairfax, Carlisle, Pudsey, drayster.—J. Estton, New Barns, bookseller.—W. Hadley, jun., Der-

by, chemist.—J. Foot, Stanton Drew, dealer.—M. Gomersall, Morley, dealer.—W. Scales and J. Scales, jun., Burton Smithes, cotton-spinners.—T. Vanherman, Mary-le-Bonne Street, oilman.—H. Pape, Pocklington, grocer.—T. D. Woolbert, Charing Cross, hatter.—A. Carrington, Crutched Friars, lighterman.

BANKRUPTS.—Oct. 10.

Addington, J. Tottenham Court Road, tallow-chandler. *Att.* Reardon and Davis, Cobet Court, Gracechurch Street.

Chambers, E. Cullumpton, Devon, hen Clarke Granger, Knightbridge, and R. Chambers, jun., Broadhembury, Devon, bankers. *Att.* Vizard and Hutchinson, Lincoln Inn.

Charles, A. Old Jewry, wine merchant. *Att.* Holmes and Lowden, Clement's Inn.

Follett, T. and J. Neale, Liverpool, merchants. *Att.* Sheppard and Co. Bedford Row.

Graves, J. Hornsby, linen-draper. *Att.* Dawes, Angel Court, Throgmorton Street.

Hulme, T. Salters, Lancaster, victualler. *Att.* Ellis, Chancery Lane.

Jack, R. Manchester, manufacturer. *Att.* Sheppard and Co. Bedford Row.

Jones, W. jun., Bristol, brush-manufacturer. *Att.* Hurd, King's Bench Walks, Temple.

McMillan, J. Liverpool, merchant. *Att.* Battye, Chancery Lane.

Spencer, J. Manchester, and W. Spencer, London, merchants. *Att.* Milne and Parry, Temple.

Spencer, J. Manchester, merchant. *Att.* Milne and Parry, Temple.

Stokes, B. and H. Hunt, South Street, Finsbury Square, merchants. *Att.* Sweet and Stokes, Basinghall Street.

Shoppard, W. New Kanglaugh, Millbank, Westminster, victualler. *Att.* Ralston, Chancery Lane.

Taylor, W. City Road, silk-mercer. *Att.* James, Buxtonbury.

Tuttle, J. Edward Street, Limehouse Fields, mariner. *Att.* Blunt and Bowman, Old Bailey.

CERTIFICATES.—Oct. 31.

W. Williamson, Watling Street, warehouseman—S. Slyth, jun. and S. Slyth, jun., Southmolton Street, chinamen—F. Foster, Selby, York, merchant—J. O'Brien and T. J. Lynch, Buxtonbury Square, Irish linen merchants.

BANKRUPTS.—Oct. 13.

Bardley, H. Ludworth, near Mellor, Derby, cotton-spinner. *Att.* Ellis, Chancery Lane.

Brown, S. and T. H. Scott, St. Mary-at-Hill, merchants. *Att.* Kibb-White and Co. Gray's-Inn Place.

Featherstonhaugh, J. St. Mary-at-Hill, Lower Thames Street, cash-factor. *Att.* Harman, Wine Office Court, Fleet Street.

Hull, J. Judd Street, near Brunswick Square, baker. *Att.* Good, York Street, Commercial Road.

Johnson, T. Kidderminster, grocer. *Att.* Parrer and Co. Nicholas Lane.

Merchant, C. Gloucester Street, St. George the Martyr, stationer and bookbinder. *Att.* Tarrant and Co. Chancery Lane.

Palmer, W. and M. Palmer, Oxford Street, straw hat makers. *Att.* Robinson, Ball Moon Street, Piccadilly.

Rodbet, J. jun., Hatte Street, Woolwich, baker. *Att.* Isaac, Bury Street, St. Mary Axe.

Saddington, J. Kempton Common, corn-dealer. *Att.* Lamb, St. Swithin's Lane, Lombard Street.

Scott, H. T. St. Mary-at-Hill, wine merchant. *Att.* Ellis, Gray's-Inn Square.

Shuter, J. Cheltenham, upholsterer. *Att.* Meredith and Co. Lincoln's-Inn, New Square.

Stewart, A. and J. M. Dennan, St. Mary Abbotts, Kensington, dealers and chapmen. *Att.* Dawson and Wratislaw, Savile Place, Burlington Street.

Tew, H. Walclose Square, tea-dealer. *Att.* Dalton, Union Street, Bishopsgate Street.

Walker, J. Wakefield, York, linen-draper. *Att.* Evans, Hatton Garden.

Wareing, W. Watherhead Mill, near Oldham, Lancashire, cotton-spinner. *Att.* Ellis, Chancery Lane.

CERTIFICATES.—Nov. 3.

C. Blunt, Project Square, dealer—S. and J. G. Baines, Bradford, Wiltshire, bakers. *Att.* Jones, Worcester, grocer—J. Graves, Fish Street Hill, leather-seller—G. H. Browne, John Street, Bedford Row, scrivener—J. Chapman, Newmarket, grocer—W. R. Laxton, Gower Street North, builder—S. Williams, Oswestry, dealer—B. Cock, Depford, coal-merchant. *Att.* Tice, Ware, brick-maker.

Smithfield, per stone of 8lb. to sink the Offal.											
	Beef.		Mutton.		Veal.		Pork.	Lamb.			
	a.	d.	a.	d.	a.	d.	s.	d.			
1812.											
Sept.	28	6	0	6	4	8	0	7	0	7	6
Oct.	5	6	0	6	4	7	8	7	0	7	6
	12	6	0	6	2	7	8	7	0	7	6
	19	6	0	6	2	7	8	7	0	7	6

Newgate and Leadenhall, by the carcase.

Newgate and Leadenhall, by the last cast.											
Sept.	28	5	4	5	6	6	8	7	8	6	4
Oct.	5	5	0	5	2	6	4	7	8	6	0
	12	4	8	5	0	6	0	8	0	6	0
	19	4	8	5	0	6	4	7	4	6	0

	St. James's.*			Whitechapel.*		
	Hay.		Straw.	Hay.		Straw.
	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
Sept. 28	6	0	0	2	14	0
Oct. 5	6	10	0	2	9	6
	12	18	0	2	9	6
19	6	0	0	2	2	0
				5	12	0
				5	12	0
				2	1	0
				2	7	0

Butts, 50 to 56lb. 26d.	Calf Skins, 30 to 40lb.
Dressing Hides 21	per dozen — 37
Crop Hides for cut. 23	Ditto, 50 to 70—40
Flat Ordinary — 18d.	Seals, Large, £9.

TALLOW,* London Average per cwt.

Soap, yellow, 104s. ; mottled, 118s. ; curd, 122s.
Candles, white, 14s. ; yellow, 15s. 6d.

Candles, per dozen, 14s. 0d.; moulds, 15s. 0d.

Sept. 19 10,631 quarters. Average 126s. 8½d.
66 4,528 — 122 4½

Oct. 3 4,538 = = = = 132 43
9,025 = = = = 116 63

10 11,967 - - - 108 5

Sept. 25 | 15.206 sacks. Average 119s. 64d.

Oct. 2 10,116 - - - 114 104

9 | 14,035 - - - - 109 72
16 | 29,562 - - - - 109 5

$$\begin{array}{r} 16 \mid 20,503 \\ \hline 0 \end{array}$$

	Peck Loaf.	Half Peck.	Quartern.
Sept. 20	6s	9d	3s

Sept. 29	68.	94.	38.	434.	13.	844.
Oct. 6	6	5	3	21	1	74

13 | 6 2 3 1 1 6½

20	6	2	3	1	1	6½
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* The highest price of the market.

American pot-ash, per cwt.	2	10	0	to	2	12	0
Ditto pearl.....	2	18	0		3	0	0
Barilla	1	11	0		2	2	0
Brandy, Coniac	1	12	0		1	14	0
Camphire, refined....lb.	0	6	3		0	0	0
Ditto unrefined...cwt.	19	10	0		0	0	0
Cochineal, garbled ..lb.	1	11	0		1	12	0
Ditto, East-India.....	0	6	0		0	7	0
Coffee, fine.....cwt.	3	3	0		3	12	0
Ditto ordinary.....	2	3	0		2	10	0
Cotton Wool, Surinam,lb.	0	1	4		0	1	7
Ditto Jamaica....	0	1	2		0	1	5
Ditto Smryna....	0	0	11		0	1	0
Ditto East-India....	0	0	8		0	1	0
Currants, Zantcwt.	3	6	0		4	7	0
Elephants' Teeth	23	0	0		27	0	0
Scrivilloes	10	10	0		15	0	0
Flax, Riga.....ton	122	0	0		125	0	0
Ditto Petersburgh ...	105	0	0		108	0	0
Galls, Turkey.....cwt.	8	0	0		8	0	0
Geneva, Hollands	1	10	0		0	0	0
Ditto English.....	0	15	6		0	0	0
Gum Arabic, Turkey,cwt.	6	10	0		8	17	0
Hemp, Riga.....ton	110	0	0		112	0	0
Ditto Petersburgh ...	110	0	0		112	0	0
Hops	bag	0	0		0	0	0
Indigo, Caracca	lb.	0	11		0	11	6
Ditto East-India ...	0	3	9		0	11	0
Iron, British bars, ..ton	14	10	0		15	10	0
Ditto Swedish.....	21	0	0		0	0	0
Ditto Norway.....	20	0	0		0	0	0
Lead in pigs.....fed.	29	0	0		0	0	0
Ditto red.....ton	27	0	0		0	0	0

COALS, *	Sunderland.	Newcastle.
Sept. 25	40s. 6d. to 43s. 6d.	33s. 9d. to 50s. 0d.
Oct. 2	40 6	43 6
9	40 6	43 6
16	42 6	45 0
		39 4
		51 6

* Delivered at 12s. per child on advance.

	Morning	Noon.	1 o'clock.	Height of Barom. Inches.	Dress by Leslie's Hydrom.
Sept. 21					
22	57	72	55	29,98	72 Fair
23	56	66	56	,98	0 Rain
24	55	57	47	30,01	36 Cloudy
25	50	57	42	29,95	30 Cloudy
26	45	62	55	30,10	47 Fair
27	55	64	57	,09	45 Fair
28	57	67	62	,10	40 Fair
29	62	66	55	29,74	0 Rain
30	55	56	55	30,00	27 Cloudy
	56	63	55	29,85	16 Cloudy
Oct. 1					
2	56	62	54	,77	10 Rain
3	48	65	48	,95	42 Fair
4	46	66	50	30,00	40 Fair
5	50	66	50	29,90	40 Fair
6	54	65	57	,60	36 Fair
7	60	64	46	,30	30 Cloudy
8	44	58	52	,39	36 Fair
9	55	62	47	,20	46 Stormy
10	47	57	50	,44	10 Showery
11	59	56	50	,37	0 Rain
12	50	53	45	,35	16 Cloudy
13	44	52	44	,20	0 Rain
14	43	53	46	,05	27 Fair
15	47	52	45	28,85	0 Rain
16	46	54	42	29,16	16 Showery
17	45	55	42	,50	28 Fair
18	40	54	50	,30	0 Rain
19	59	56	50	28,90	0 Rain
20	54	56	50	,57	0 Stormy
	51	56	45	,93	32 Fair

METEOROLOGICAL TABLE.

Lead, white	ton	42	0	0	0	0
Logwood chips.....	ton	15	0	0	0	0
Madder, Dutch crop	cwt.	9	0	0	10	0
Mahogany	ft.	0	1	2	1	11
Oil, Lucca, ..25 gal.	jar	20	0	0	22	0
Ditto spermaceti.	ton	85	0	0	0	0
Ditto whale	40	0	0	42	0	0
Ditto Florence, $\frac{1}{2}$ chest	3	0	0	3	3	0
Pitch, Stockholm, ..cwt.	1	2	0	0	0	0
Raisins, bloom	cwt.	6	0	0	6	10
Rice, Carolina.....	3	0	0	3	2	0
Rum, Jamaica <i>bond</i> gal.	0	4	4	0	5	4
Ditto Leeward Island	ton	0	3	6	0	3
Saltpetre, East-India, cwt.	3	11	0	3	13	0
Silk, thrown, Italian..lb.	2	10	0	3	4	0
Silk, raw, Ditto	1	15	0	2	3	0
Tallow, English,..cwt.	3	18	0	0	0	0
Ditto, Russia, white..	0	0	0	0	0	0
Ditto——, yellow..	4	15	0	0	0	0
Tar, Stockholm	bar.	2	3	0	2	5
Tim in blocks	cwt.	6	13	0	6	15
Tobacco, Maryland,..lb.	0	0	24	0	0	3
Ditto Virginia.....	0	0	4	0	0	4
Wax, Guinea	cwt.	8	0	0	9	0
Whale-fins (Greenl.) ton.	35	0	0	0	0	0
Wine, Red Port,.....	pipe125	0	0	130	0	0
Ditto Lisbon	100	0	0	120	0	0
Ditto Madeira,	100	0	0	0	0	0
Ditto Vidonia.....	86	0	0	94	0	0
Ditto Calcvarella.....	110	0	0	126	0	0
Ditto Sherry,.. butt.	105	0	0	120	0	0
Ditto Mountain.....	75	0	0	100	0	0
Ditto Claret	hor. 75	0	0	110	0	0

COURSE OF EXCHANGE.

AMSTERDAM, 2 US. 29 5—Ditto at sight, 28 8—ROTTERDAM, 8 17—HAMBURG, 27—ALTONA, 27 1
—PARIS, 1 day's date, 18—Ditto, 2 US. 18 20—MADRID in paper—Ditto eff.—CADIZ, in paper
—CADIZ, eff. 4 5—BILBOA—PALERMO, per oz. 125 4—LEGHORN, 58—GENOA, 54—VENICE, in eff. 52
—NAPLES, 42—LISBON, 69 1/2—OPORTO, 69 1/2—DUBLIN, per cent. 9—CORK, ditto 9 1/2—AGIO
B. of HOLLAND, 5 per cent.

The Average Prices of Navigable Canal Property, Dock Stock, Fire-Office Shares, &c. from 20th September to 20th October 1812, at the Office of Messrs. Risdon and Dumant, 4, Shorter's Court, Throgmorton Street, London.

London Dock Stock, £108. to £105.—West-India Dock, £149. £148. to £149.—East-India Dock, —
—Globe Assurance Stock, £108. to £105.—Imperial ditto Shares, £50.—Eagle ditto ditto, £3. 15s.
Hoyle ditto ditto, £—.—Atlas ditto ditto, —.—East-London Water-Works, £80. to £75.—Kent ditto, £60.
—London Institution Shares, £55.—Grand Junction Canal ditto, £210. £205. to £208.—Kennet and
Avon, £23.—Leeds and Liverpool, £205. to £207.—Wiltshire and Berks, £19. 10s.—Thames and Medway, —.—
Huddersfield, £20.—Grand Surrey, £128. to £115.—Grand Western, £32 Disc.—Grand Union, £20. Disc.

<i>London Premiums of Insurance, October 20th, 1812.</i>	
At 1 £. Poole, Exeter, Dartmouth, Plymouth, and Falmouth.	gs. 2. Cadiz, Lisbon, Oporto ; Home 8 &c. ret. 6.
At 1 £. H. g. Yarmouth, Hull, Newcastle, and Portsmouth.	gs. 3 to 4 for convoy.
At 2 gs. Dublin, Cork, Waterford, Newry, Ports of Scotland, Bristol, Chester, and Liverpool.	Homes 8 to 10 gs.
At 2 gs. France, with licences ; ret. 2 gs.	At 8 gs. Madeira.
At 5 gs. East-India, Comp. ships, Gibral- tar, with returns.	At 10 gs. Leeward Islands, with convoy.
	Cape of Good Hope, Africa, Malaga, &c. Western Isles. Gottenburgh to 12 gs.
	Home 10 gs.
	At 10 to 12 gs. Jamaica, with convoy & ret.
	At 12 gs. Home 25 gs. ret. £2.
	At 12 gs. Brazil, home 12 to 15 gs. East- India, with returns. Home with returns 6
	At 20 to 25 gs. Southern Whale Fishery ; out and home. Stockholm, with returns.
	St. Petersburg, Rigas, &c. ret. 4 and 4.
	Home to 25 gs. to 30 gs. R. 5 and 4.

Se. from 20th September to
Court, Throgmorton Street,

149.—East-India Dock, —
ditto ditto, £3. 15s.—
£75.—Kent ditto, £60.
5. to £208.—Kennet and
Hames and Medway, —.—
Grand Union, £20. Disc.